COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL ATLAS;

REPRESENTING.

BY MEANS OF STAINED COPPER-PLATE CHARTS.

THE EXPORTS, IMPORTS, AND GENERAL TRADE OF ENGLAND; THE NATIONAL DEBT, AND OTHER PUBLIC ACCOUNTS:

WITH OBSERVATIONS AND REMARKS:

WILLIAM PLAYFAIR, (AUTHOR OF REGULATIONS, FOR THE INTEREST OF MONEY.)

CHARTS OF THE REVENUE AND DEBTS OF IRELAND,

DONE IN THE SAME MANNER,

BY JAMES CORRY, Esq.

The Commercial Part is taken from the Custom-House Books, and the Public Accounts from the Journals of the House of Commons, and other Papers belonging to that House not yet published.

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NUMBER WARKE

A DIVERTISEMENT.

IN this volume of Charts I have endeavoured to include all the different branches of our Trade, and such of the Public Accounts as I judged to be of the most importance.

that tiefe guineas diegolists docon upon a longe table in a firaigit ine, and touching and orien,

Since the time when I first began to collect the materials, it has been found proper to alter the plan a little, but I hope it is for the better, particularly by including Mr. Corry's Charts of the Revenue of Ireland, which I believe to be quite as accurate, and as good in every respect as any that I have given, or that I could give.

I was the more definous of publishing a complete set of national accounts in this manner, that by fairly introducing this mode of statement, I might bring it into public notice, and prepare the way for bringing it into use in the affairs of the nation, and even of individuals, for it is equally applicable to both.

As the first part of this problem in follo in 1, 2, is timbered of less value by the tree borns

As the propriety and justness of representing sums of money, and time, by parts of space, tho very readily agreed to by most men, yet as a few seem to apprehend that there may possibly be some deception in it, of which they are not aware, the following familiar illustration occurred to me. Suppose the money that we pay in any one year for the expence of the Navy were in guineas, and that

that these guineas were laid down upon a large table in a straight line, and touching each other, and those paid next year were laid down in another straight line, and the same continued for a number of years: these lines would be of different lengths, as there were sewer or more guineas; and they would make a shape, the dimensions of which would agree exactly with the amount of the sums; and the value of a guinea would be represented by the part of space which it covered. The Charts are exactly this upon a small scale, and one division represents the breadth or value of ten thousand or an hundred thousand guineas as marked, with the same exactness that a square inch upon a mapmay represent a square mile of a country. And they, therefore, are a representation of the real money laid down in different lines, as it was originally paid away.

Should there be any mistake committed in this Work, or should mankind improve upon the idea, I hope it will be remembered, that as this is the first, as it is new in its nature, it has a particular claim to the indulgence of the Public, both as an invention and as a book.

As the first part of this, published in folio in 1775, is rendered of less value by the size being reduced, those Gentlemen who are possessed of any of the folio ones, may have them exchanged by applying to the Booksellers.

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A S the purpose of the following Charts is to convey information in a distinct and easy man-

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ner, like History, the chief merit that they can have is truth and accuracy.

The mode here adopted for conveying information is accurate in its principle, though in the execution it may be liable sometimes to error. I have, however, spared no pains to avoid missake, and have added Printed Tables at the end of each Number, that, by comparison, their errors, if they have any, may be detected.

In obtaining information, there is, however, no possibility of getting exactly at the true amount, either of exports or imports; but the errors are not great; and being equal or nearly so, at different periods, do not prevent the proportion of increase or decline from being truly re-

prefented.

Until the commercial affairs of this country came to be upon a very large scale, and until they became more flourishing, as well as more complex, than those of other nations, they required not any very great portion of our attention. And, as the facts that we had to reason from were but sew, any system or theory sounded upon them could be but very impersect, and was therefore the less necessary. Indeed, till of late, the true interest of trading nations was very impersectly understood. A few facts and observations, ill explained, and unconnected by arrangement, comprehended our knowledge on that important subject, when a work appeared, that, like an immense gleam of light, discovered, and laid open every part of that intricate system. A reformation was then effected in our commercial creed, like that which was produced by Sir Isaac Newton in mathematics and astronomy *.

A The

^{*} An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations by Dr Adam Smith, which is so complete and extensive a work, that there is scarcely any phenomenon in commerce that it does not account for, in the most clear and satisfactory manner, and connects the whole into one system.

The advanced state of commercial affairs, and their intricacy, are by no means the only reasons that require them to be made the objects of particular attention. The present politics of Europe, by endeavouring to preserve a balance of power among nations, reduces the wealth of states to a law something like that to which sluids are subject. Whatever rises above its level is industriously brought down. Particular care should therefore be taken of our trade, which, more than any other circumstance, seems to attract the envy of other European nations. The sluctuations also to which human affairs are liable, ought to make us doubly circumspect in prosperity, as we know that it is in the height of success that the seeds of adversity are most frequently sown.

After having observed all the nations of the world running one general course, luxury and power succeeding to barbarity and want, and in their turn giving place to indolence and poverty, we have little excuse in neglecting those things that constitute the good of the present

day, and the foundation of our present grandeur.

Should this Work meet with the favour of the Public, it will be continued, as an index, pointing out the state of our commercial health; and, should I meet with that assistance in procuring materials that I have reason to expect, it may probably be extended, and made much more complete than at present it would be proper positively to undertake.

COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL

A T L A S.

THE giving form and shape, to what otherwise would only have been an abstract idea, has, in many cases, been attended with much advantage; it has often rendered easy and accu-

rate a conception that was in itself imperfect, and acquired with difficulty.

Figures and letters may express with accuracy, but they never can represent either number or space. A map of the river Thames, or of a large town, expressed in figures, would give but a very impersect notion of either, though they might be persectly exact in every dimension; most men would preser representations, though very indifferent ones, to such a mode of painting.

In an affair of fuch consequence as the actual trade of a country, it is of much importance to

render our conceptions as clear, distinct, and easily acquired, as possible.

Hitherto few men are much acquainted with the general trade of Britain, or even with any particular branch of it, on account chiefly of the imperfect and difficult way of acquiring the knowledge.

Information, that is imperfectly acquired, is generally as imperfectly retained; and a man who has carefully investigated a printed table, finds, when done, that he has only a very faint and partial idea of what he has read; and that like a figure imprinted on fand, is soon totally

erased and defaced.

The amount of mercantile transactions in money, and of profit or loss, are capable of being as easily represented in drawing, as any part of space, or as the face of a country; though, till now, it has not been attempted. Upon that principle these Charts were made; and, while they give a simple and a distinct idea, they are as near perfect accuracy as is any way useful.

On inspecting any one of these Charts attentively, a sufficiently distinct impression will be made, to remain unimpaired for a confiderable time, and the idea which does remain will be fimple and complete, at once including the duration and the amount. Men of great rank, or active business, can only pay attention to general outlines; nor is attention to particulars of use, any farther than as they give a general information: And it is hoped, that, with the affistance of these Charts, such information will be got, without the fatigue and trouble of studying the particulars of which it is composed.

The advantageous and disadvantageous, the increasing and decreasing branches of commerce, will be easily distinguished, and the rising or declining progress of the whole included at a view: And when we consider, what we were, what we might have been, and what we one day probably must be, it is time to investigate with attention that chain of events, on the remaining

links of which depends our national prosperity.

CALLES TO LANATION OF THE CHARTS.

eggeneratily required, as pollible. We

THE divisions that pass from right to left are one million of pounds each. The divisions that pass from the top to the bottom are ten years each. The crooked lines of exports and imports are measured off upon

the upright lines, according to the contents of the Tables added at the end.

Suppose you want the amount of exports in the year 1750. Observe where the line of exports passes the line marked at the bottom 1750, and by looking on the right hand margin, you will find it 12,650,000. The line of imports that same year passes at 7,250,000; and the difference between these two, which is 5,400,000, is the balance that year in our favour. In the fame manner, the amounts of exports, imports, and balance, for any other year, may be found upon any of the Charts; though a very little practice will enable one to tell by the eye near enough, without any more trouble. Observing the general figure of the whole is a good way to get at a diffinct idea of the nature of the trade.

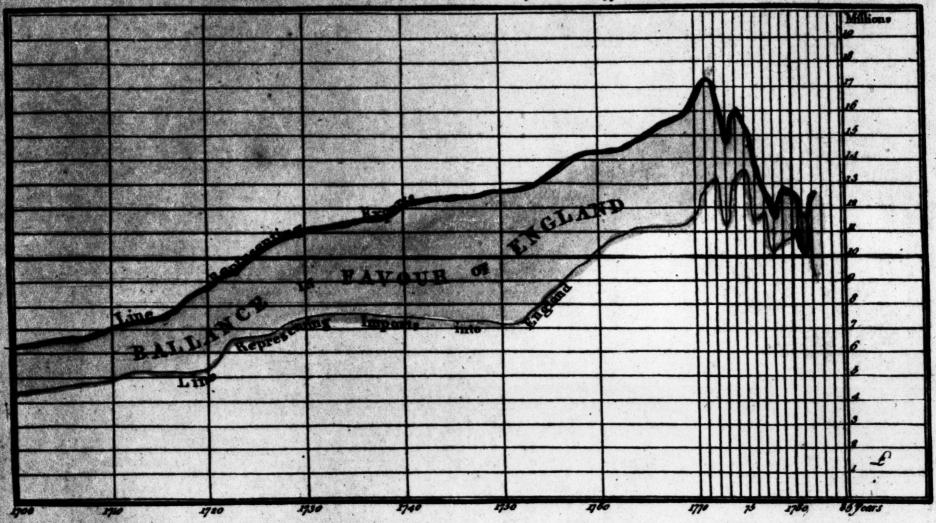
In the particular Charts, the divisions from right to left are only one hundred thousand pounds each,

though in the general trade they are each one million.

GENERAL

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CHART of all the IMPORTS and EXPORTS to and from ENGLAND From the Year 1700 to 1782 by W. Playfair



The Divisions at the Bottom, express YEARS, & those on the Right hand, MILLIONS of POUNDS

1. Published as the Act directs, 20, Aug. 1785

GENERALOBSERVATIONS

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The both son may represent the search of the sold of t IN the General Chart of Exports and Imports, which may be faid to represent the income of I the nation, the ideas excited by observing, at one view, the progressive increase of commerce for a period of feventy years, are pleafing as well as useful. It is agreeable to comprehend, at a fingle glance, the affairs of a nation as completely as we can those of an individual. and to observe, that, in the year 1771, our commerce had increased nearly to three times what it was in the beginning of this century.

to the feet the season to do not a more fluid and a positive miss of their contract their and a contest, under the

It is not, indeed, equally pleafing to observe, that, in the short period of ten following years, the fame commerce had decreased as much as the industry of men had raised it in forty-four preceding ones. In the year 1781 the exports were only as great as they had been in the year 1727. The imports, it is true, were greater; but then they were also greater than our exports

in the fame year.

It is not to the present purpose to explain causes, but to represent effects as they really are. If, however, a conjecture were to be hazarded, it might be observed, that, till about the year 1750, our riches had increased more rapidly than our luxury; but that ever fince, till the year 1771, our luxury, or expences at home, increased above their usual proportion. The increase of luxury did not, however, affect our welfare, nor impede our fuccess; for at that time the exports were greater than they had been at any former period.

Then it was that our affairs suffered a reverse, by the artificial capital of our merchants being suddenly withdrawn, owing to the imprudent conduct and speculations of some remarkable men; speculations which destroyed in a great measure that mutual considence which in reality made every private merchant a private bank, and enabled us to give longer credits than any other nation in the world. On this event did trade instantly decline; but, as the evil was partly imaginary, and men became more distrustful than they had any good reason to be, as remembrance of it became less strong, the effects began to be less felt; and the evil would soon have been effaced, had not a more lasting and a greater missortune then commenced, under the name of a REBELLION IN AMERICA; which, in fact, was no more than the total misgiving of a great mercantile project, that had never answered, and which, had the abandonment been less expensively managed, we were well quit of. It was the expense of abandoning the scheme, and not the failure of the project itself, that precipitated evil on the commerce of England. Had America been sunk in the Atlantic Ocean, it would not have had half the bad consequences that have ensued to this country.

The same fort of circumstances that occasioned the sudden sall in 1772, now occasioned a much greater; for the capital employed in the English trade consists partly in money and partly in credit, not from foreigners, but among ourselves. This last portion of our capital was nearly destroyed in the year 1772. But the immense expense of losing America destroyed the more substantial capital in a great degree also. We had 100 millions more employed in trade in 1771 than in 1782: The least profit that sum could bring was eight millions a year. One cause of

the decline of trade is therefore very evident.

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In

This artificial capital was preserved at a greater expense than 5 per cent. per annum, often at more than 10 per cent. but still it encouraged trade. It must be a mistake to suppose that a high rate of interest always hurts trade; a low rate is surely better, but it is the consequence, and not the cause. For a more full explanation of this, see The Increase of Manusastures, Commerce, and Finance, proposed in Regulations for the Interest of Money, page 13.

In former wars, the capital has also been withdrawn; but, during former wars, there was a circumstance that prevented the effects from being so much felt: The artificial capital raised by credit was not so great, and had not been stretched to the utmost, as in latter times; it therefore increased, and made up for the deficiencies in real capital, so that the national loans were not then so hurtful as they are now.

It is probable that, unless a long peace intervenes, to enable us to increase our capitals, every

future loan will be attended with the same decay of trade.

Without making useless reflections on what is past, our business is, to take as expanded a view as possible, of all circumstances, and to consider, from the past and the present complexion and appearance of things, what probably it may be best to do, not forgetting that the politics of a nation, acquiring wealth by commerce, is widely different from that of a nation getting riches, either by conquest or colonies. The first of these we have it not in our power to enjoy; and experience has taught us the fatality and uncertainty of the latter. Industry and attention seem much more deserving of our dependence, as they are the only real sources of wealth, and causes of prosperity.

It is to be remarked, that the real balance in our favour is something greater than it appears to be; for the East and West India trades are against us, though, in the end, a great part of that returns with those individuals who come home to settle, and bring their wealth with them. The information contained in these Charts is as accurate as can well be obtained. The information must all be derived from the papers and books belonging to the Custom-House; and, did it not require so long a time to bring them up, we might have the satisfaction of seeing the Charts continued to the last year. The plan is not much different from that of Lord Shessield's,

in his useful and ingenious work, as far as it relates to exports and imports.

Small variations in the exports and imports must be considered merely as matters of chance;

it is only from confiderable alterations that any weighty conclusion is to be drawn.

IRELAND.

VERSOIT TTLIFE

en entre est i tres est est in brent i in de entre est est durint de est est est est est entre est en entre es wit politic course, which co surfaces the range of the course and a leader to the properties constitution of the state of th the form of the second of the second grave, ristique proche en el en el cambre, receptor a cambre de la companya de la companya de la companya de l Assistant to vice a good of the rest of the most overte wholesages as while of his fishing the first of the second of the as expected with from parties the long but beat each to be to the control of the co the content of the co adion to the their their the control of per coming the military and a contract that the contract that the contract that it not in one provide the te bue villebal and our construction the reserve and an arrangement of the following of the construction o in provided from yield, this was your to be a contributed to the provided the year. od sassanati naci maka nganistrana ka makalana si maka ki maka ka maka na ka maka na ka maka na ka maka na ka reaction and seems a true outs at all recent car in the contract and it is the first of the contract of the con services and in the commence of the information i bibahar, seeligeding en er pegasias ar en berer er genalisen in and the second of the second of the second of the second of the Country of the Country of the Country la Liberta in the first paged residence a some non in many and the second of bases of the . An opini ban ar boxe el cultur y alla el cultura la folisional en rede la erantem de réspont besolétiques on turbe e le cui bin, en la le la company l'entre l'e generally the contract of the

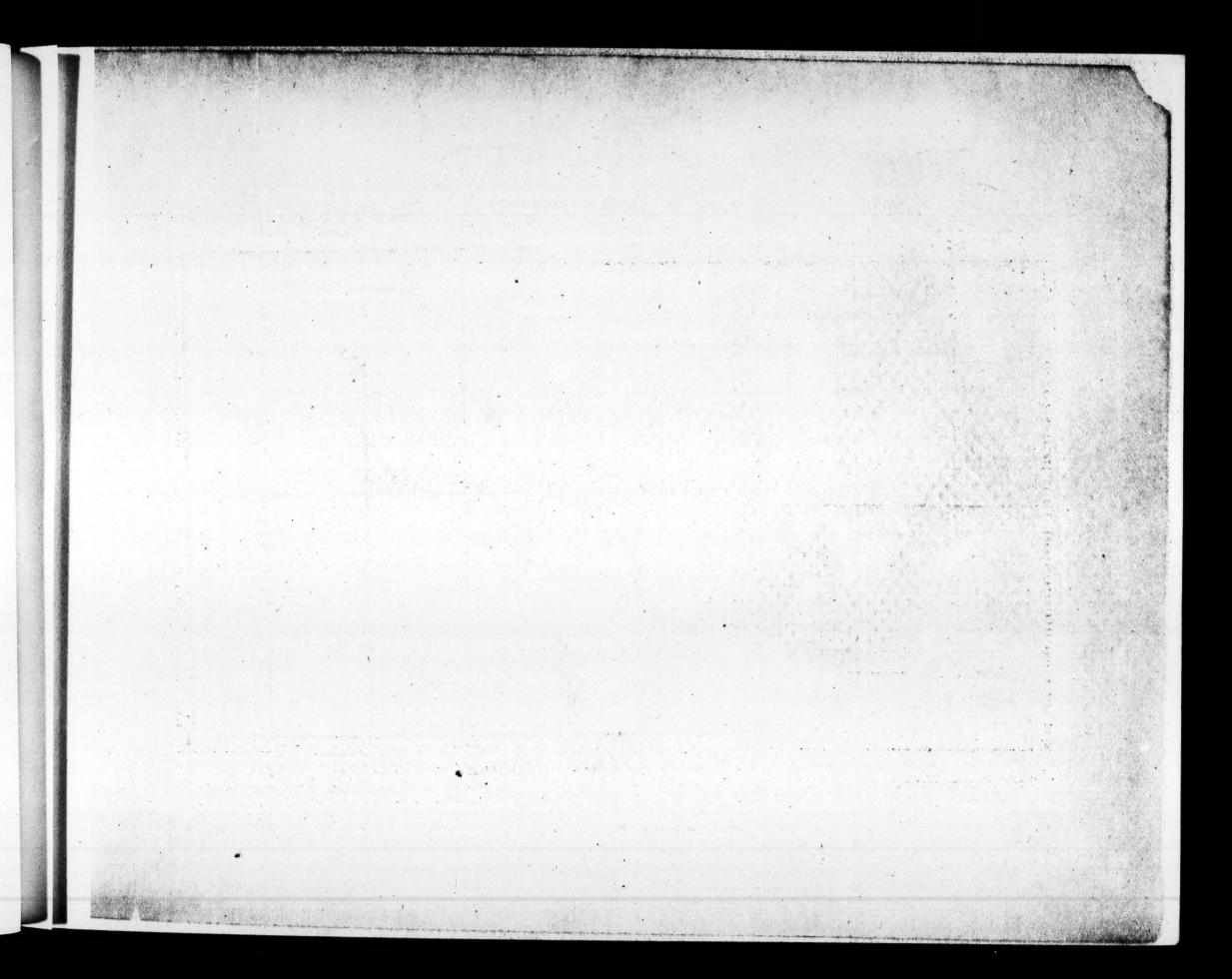
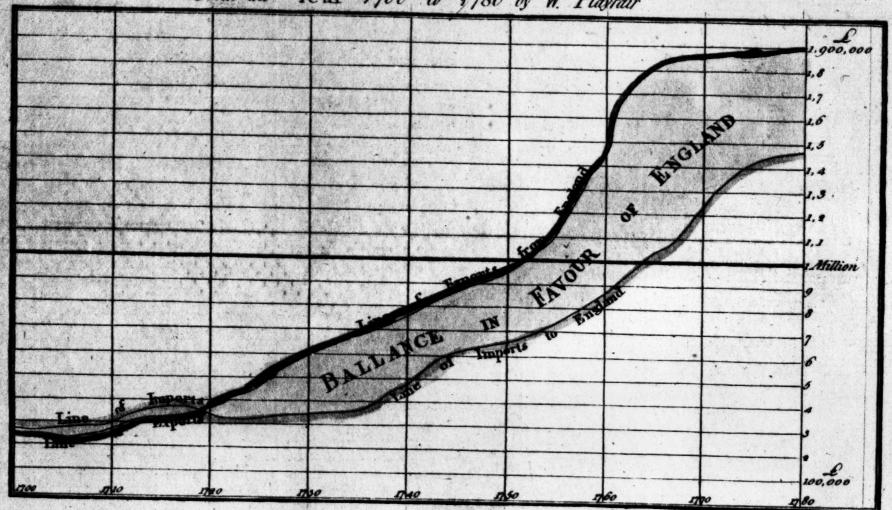


CHART of Imports and Exports of ENGLAND to and from IRELAND From the Year 1700 to 1780 by W. Playfair



The Bottom Line is Divided into YEARS, the Right-hand Line into HUNDRED-THOUSAND POUNDS

Lines Sout:

Published as the Act Directs. 20. Aug. 1785

to Face Page 9.4

ROM the beginning of this century, till the year 1720, we find the trade with Ireland to have been a very inconfiderable one, and that the balance, though very small, was not in our favour.

From that period, however, this branch of trade has increased with considerable rapidity and regularity, both in the whole amount and the balance, which ever since has been in favour of England. About the time that the trade with Ireland was made more free than it had before been, that progressive increase became slower, instead of more rapid. Though perhaps it might not be easy to foresee this, yet is it by no means a strange phenomenon; nor ought it to excite wonder if these privileges should continue to be rather hurtful than otherwise to Ireland, at least for a considerable time yet to come.

Before the Irish nation had been ambitious of rivalling England in manufactures and commerce, their capital and their labour were employed in those things that were most naturally the productions of that country. Had their industry or wealth been too great to find employment on such objects, any liberties tending to increase that field would have enriched the country Unluckily for Ireland, however, the very contrary was the case: these very liberties produced a different effect, and their views were diverted to objects which to them were much less advantageous; just as much so as if they had cultivated the vine in preference to the potatoe.

The evil, however, did not rest here; for manufactures are of all things the most difficult to transplant, because the habits of the people must change before they can thrive *, and also be-

^{*} That this is true, may eafily be feen in England, and in every country, as women and children affift in every confiderable local manufacture, and must be bred up to it. In countries that manufacture linen or woollen, women and children universally card or spin; and, when once bred up to that, they could never handle a hammer or a file with any degree of dexterity. Many women about Birmingham and Wolverhampton never saw a spinning-wheel; but they are very expert at making nails, buttons, buckles, &c. &c. No manufacture where women and children do great part of the work can be transplanted in less than a lifetime, and seldom then.

cause they must be losing manufactures, till they come to such perfection, as at least to equal those of other countries. Nature has in general been so careful to point out, by difference of climate, soil, or situation, the manufactures that suit a country best, that it is our fault when we mistake her intention; and whenever recourse must be had to prohibitions, praemia, and such things, to encourage common trade, there is reason to fear that some mistake has been committed. These businesses that thrive best with people who have great plenty of capital are the very world for those who are not rich, as they bring on a very unequal fort of a competition, which is generally hurtful to the poorer party, though, when carried on with much moderation, it sometimes ends differently; and the attentive industry necessary to that description of men has frequently in the end triumphed over the affluence of the rich and negligent.

The disadvantages Ireland laboured under would not have been complete, had not their attention and efforts also been turned to making themselves of political consequence. That large branch of trade carried on by volunteers, only for home consumption, completed the disappointment, and it became necessary to ask greater advantages, as those already granted had proved

inadequate to enriching the country.

Should any thing like a separation of interests ever take place between England and Ireland, it will be to their mutual disadvantage, but chiefly to that of the latter. England will lose some

power, and Ireland the means of getting rich.

In any dispute between two countries so connected as England and Ireland, the richer nation has at first the disadvantage; it has nothing to get, and much to lose; the other, on the contrary, has much to expect, and is not afraid of losing any thing: these operate in producing presumption in the one, and timidity in the other. When, however, a disagreement has fairly come to a head, and force comes to be opposed to force, the matter is intirely altered; and though the interference of other powers may render unsuccessful the advantage of the richer, they can neither alleviate nor remove those evils that attend the poorer country, which do not end with the contest, but are continued and extended on account of the felf-defence and other expences of government.

Were

Were it not too presumptuous to decide upon a question so agitated, as that now of the trade of Ireland, there is ample room for observation: And it is to be lamented, that the ambition of the one to get, and the tenacity of the other to keep, are both carried to a great height. The interest, however, of both countries requires an Union; and justice demands that it should be upon fair principles: it would be offering an insult to the judgment of the leading men on the different sides of the channel to suppose that they thought any good could possibly arise from a separation. The case has frequently been assimilated to that of North America, though it is very different, and resembles not, in any respect, a portion of that Continent, which, extending almost from the torrid to the frigid zone, nature never could intend as an appendage to a distant, a luxurious, and a divided island.

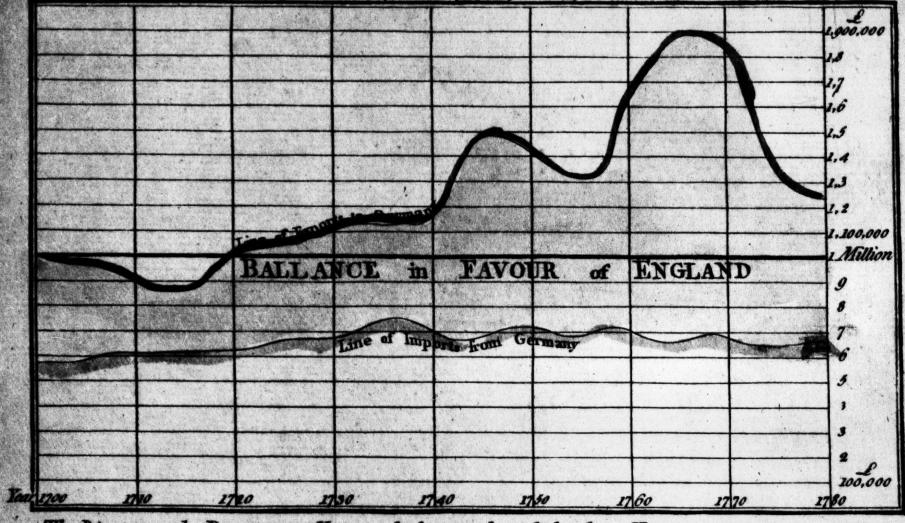
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CHART of IMPORTS and EXPORTS of ENGLAND, to and from GERMANY
From the Year 1700 to 1780 By W Playfair



The Divisions at the Bottom are 10 Years each those on the right hand into HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS each

A Face Page 13."

Published as the Act division Aug. 20.4 1785

GERMANY.

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The trade with Germany, very considerable in its amount, is also from its nature one of the most advantageous branches of our commerce. The strict honour and integrity that so early distinguished the individuals of that nation accompanies still all their mercantile engagements. Besides this circumstance, in all cases so desirable, the articles which we import and export, are, in their nature, to us the most advantageous. Those that we import from thence are chiefly raw materials, and our exports consist principally of sinished goods, the value of which is derived from the labour and art in making; so that they afford a greater advantage, and are a source of greater riches to us than twice the trade might be, if the articles were of greater intrinsic value.

The articles exported to Germany are chiefly of the fort that the Germans manufacture themfelves. That country, which has frequently given both government and arts to modern Europe,
and which to this day produces the very best artists, was unlucky in having strict laws made,
relating to freedoms and corporations, at an early period, when the mistaken notion prevailed,
that manufactures were improved and encouraged by such privileges and restrictions. It has
been owing to this circumstance that we have often supplied them with articles, the art and

manner of making which had originated in their own country.

The Germans excel in goodness of work, but by no means in dispatch of business. Individuals there, are taught from their first going to learn trade, to consider excellence of workmanship as the thing of all others the most desirable to be attained; and in that habit are they brought up, till it is too late to alter. This disposition in individuals has prevented them from manufacturing cheap, many articles which they can make much better than any other nation in the world. The nature of business in Britain, which is often calculated more for dispatch and low prices, than for the goodness of the article, enables us to undersel them much; and, particularly for these twenty years last past, our dexterity and improvements in arts having advanced amazingly;

zingly*; of consequence, the balance in our favour, from the year 1760 to 1770, was not less than a million on an average.

The present Emperor, however, who is always awake to the interests of his country, has counteracted, as far as possible, and always discouraged, those bad monopolizing laws, which

the German disposition, very averse to changes, is not willing to have repealed.

This in time may diminish our commerce with that country much more effectually than prohibitory laws, which they otherwise would, sooner or later, have found it their interest to repeal. It is probably owing to the internal improvements in manusactures there, that our exports have begun to diminish, as far back as the year 1776. We may have less, but it is not likely that we shall ever lose the trade to Germany, as the benefit is mutual, and seems to originate in the nature of the inhabitants, and of the productions of the two countries.

Should, however, the prohibitory laws be rigorously executed, we shall lose one of the most advantageous branches of our commerce. Those who talk of sinuggling British manufactures into Germany, display the most consummate ignorance of the subject: they are comparing with the almost spontaneous productions of the luxurious East, the laboured manufactures of an industrious country; and they are comparing knives and scissars to tea and brandy: they are ignorant of the prime cost of the articles, and of that material circumstance, that the identity of the one is easily proved, and that of the other generally very doubtful.

* The improvements in manufactures in this country may perhaps be better judged of from the number of travellers in stage coaches, than any other circumstance. About forty years ago there was only one stage coach came from Derby to London, sixteen times in a year, sourteen times in summer, and twice in winter; now there are as many or more in a fortnight.

It was not unnfual for manufacturers from inland parts to get their goods ready, and put them in a London waggon, which they accompanied to town, either riding in the waggon, or walking by it; when they had fold

their goods to a London merchant, they went back and made more.

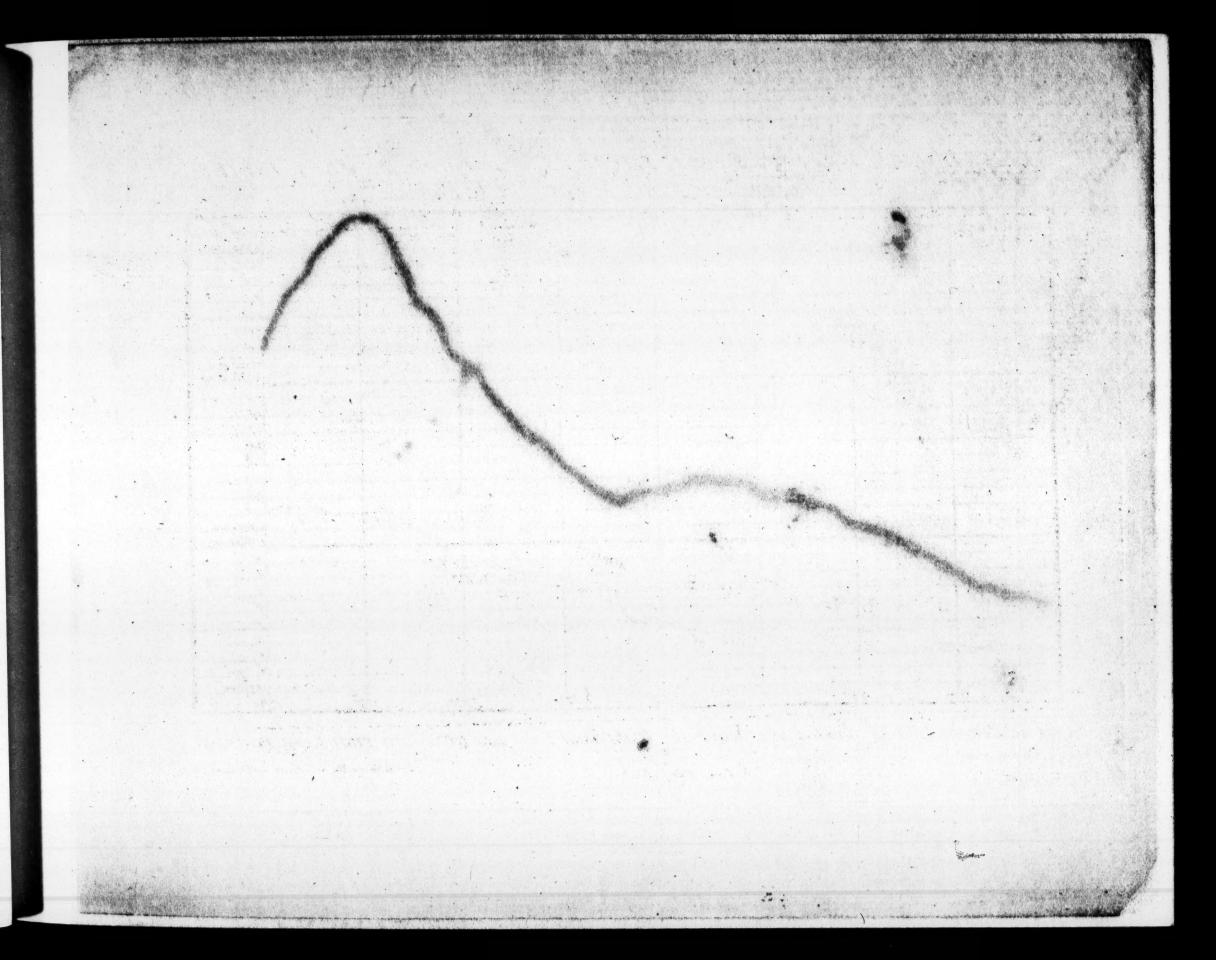
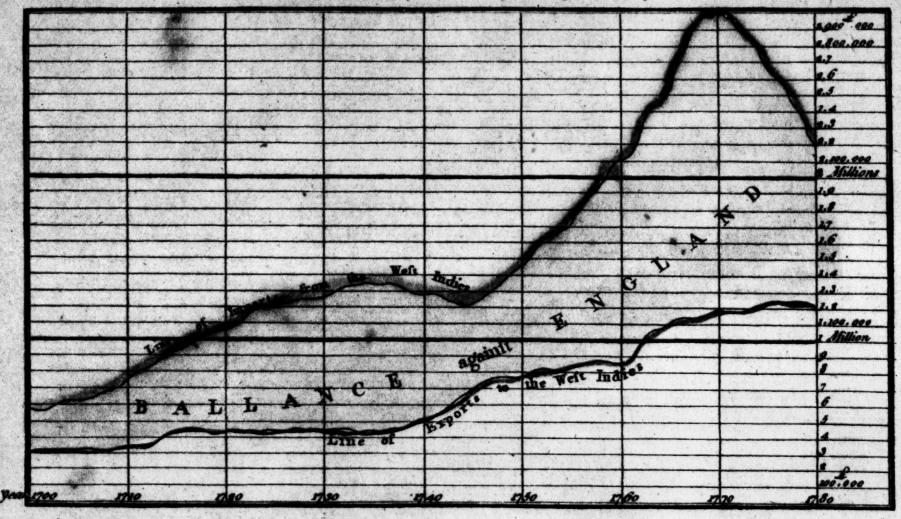


CHART of the EXPORTS and IMPORTS to and from the WEST INDIES.

From the Year 1700 to 1780 by W Playfair



The Bottom Line is divided into Years the Right-hand Line into HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS

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Tublishit as the Act directs so ! Aug! 1705

WESTINDIES.

THE possession of the West India islands has proved of much advantage to Britain; and the balance in this trade is of a nature totally different from that with any independent country. Though apparently against us, it is really in our favour. Did these islands import as much as they export, the possession of them would not be of much value. Of the articles which we import from thence, part is again exported from this country. The planters also, and other settlers, who generally return home, bring their wealth with them: So that in its nature it is very different from the other branches of trade, and even from that which was carried on with the Americans while they submitted to our government. The trade with America was the same in its nature with any foreign trade, and the balance that fairly appeared in our favour was real gain. If we could trade with that extensive country to as great an amount as we did before its independence, we should be as great gainers as we then were, with the advantage of not being obliged to defend or govern so distant a colony, two things which we have always found to be very expensive. Every settler in America became an American; every settler in the islands almost continues to remain an Englishman; so that, with Jamaica and the other islands, we may be said to be carrying on an internal and not a foreign trade. With America it was entirely foreign.

This trade was increasing with immense rapidity before the war; and the decline for the last ten years was only a natural and a temporary consequence, arising from the interruption it naturally met with. Its situation rendering it the most liable to interception possible, the sleets of France and Spain having the opportunity of destroying and taking our merchant ships, with very little trouble, and even without going out of their course to America, the theatre of the war.

The West India trade, besides being very beneficial, is preserved without much expence of money; and, it is also to be hoped, without much danger of being lost; for it is free from all

those alienating tendencies that create revolt and rebellion.

These possessions, as desirable for the wealth they afford, as infamous for being of the number of those spots where European avarice triumphs over all the virtues of humanity, afford us rum and sugar, at the expence of the lives and freedom of the much injured, and wretched inhabitants of Africa.

AMERICA.

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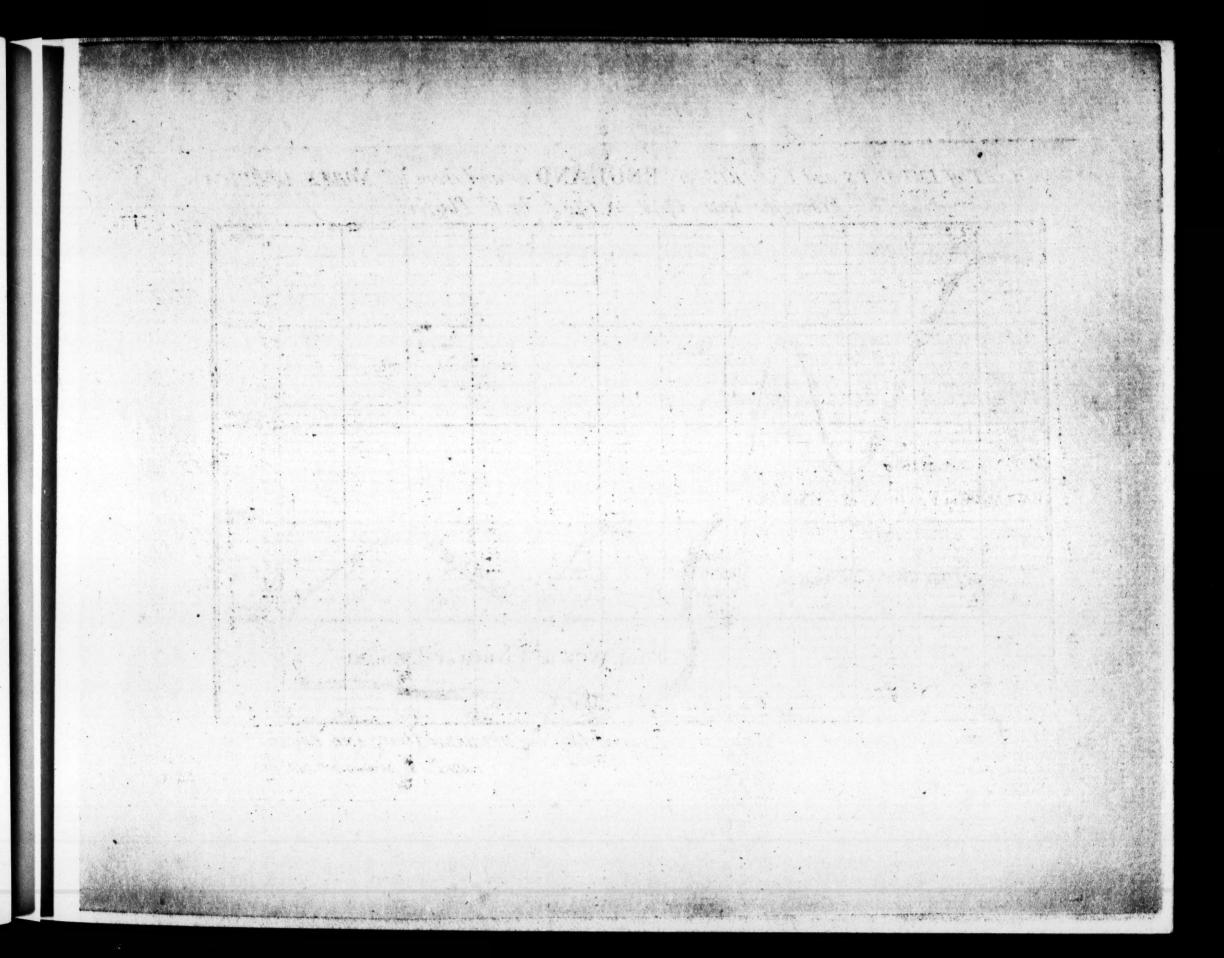
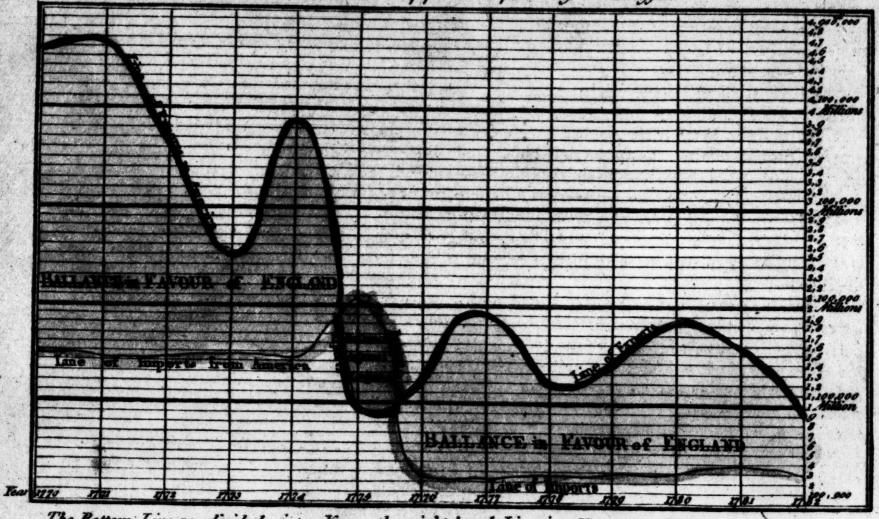


CHART of IMPORTS and EXPORTS of ENGLAND to and from all NORTHAMERICA

From the Year 1770 to 1782 by W. Playfair



The Bottom Line is divided into Years the right-hand Line into HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS

A finale Scape 17 th Page 17 th P

HE commerce of England has not in any instance experienced so rapid a decline as in its trade to America.

Perhaps no kingdom ever formed a more great or noble scheme, than that of peopling, governing, and protecting an eighth part of the known world; and the honour of having attempted it is all that now remains to England. The thing was in itself impossible, it was too great a project, and its principles were unsound. We expected that obedience from a child, that has

only fometimes been exacted from a flave.

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There are particular spots on the earth that are rich by nature, and seem to court the yoke from the inhabitants of poorer countries. Such are the Spice Islands, and other places in the East Indies; the West India islands, and some parts of South America; and great riches are derived from extending dominion over such, and importing their produce. The Romans, indeed, acquired riches by dominion over poor nations, but then it was by a tributary revenue, it was not a commercial one, neither were the nations sounded and nursed at their expence.

The British empire followed a different plan from either of these, in peopling America. It was at the expence of peopling, protecting, and governing a distant country, the situation, extent, and nature of which, were such as insured it liberty, whenever it thought proper to make

the demand. .

Things took their natural course, and America, always a very expensive possession, at last asserted its own liberty, and was successful. It has often been said, that America was too impatient, and threw off the yoke too soon for its own welfare. It might perhaps been better for America, but it would probably have been worse for Britain, had it been less ambitious of independence: those expences, which have already been so prejudicial, would still have continued, and the expence of losing the whole would have come at a time when perhaps we might have been less able to support it.

Notwithstanding the failure of the project of preserving America as a British colony, the advantage from American trade may probably be very great to England. No other country is

fo well calculated to supply them with what they want; nor is any other country so capable of doing it. It is in vain to imagine that friendship or gratitude to the French will make them deal with that country to their own disadvantage; it is equally vain, as to suppose that they would remain subject to Britain after it ceased to be their interest. Can any ties to France be more strong than those to Britain once were? Nay, can they be balf so strong? If they are not

stronger, they must be broke.

History, perhaps, does not furnish a greater instance of the downfal of ambition, and the vanity of human project, than Britain experienced in the revolt of America. The idea of preferving it in a state of dependence, was rapacious, impolitic, and unjust. Happy would it have been for both nations had it then been considered so by the mother country. England might have faid, "We never expected to derive any other revenue from you, than what may be the ' consequence of a mutual trade; nor were we ever foolish enough to conceive that you would ' ever trade with us but when it was your interest; the extent of your coasts, and your distant ' and continental fituation, prevent that. You are able, and you wish to be independent; let ' us part friends, and deal as extensively as is our mutual interest; that is all we can expect of each other.'--- The trade to America would in that event have been immense; and it will yet be very great; for, though we perceive a most sudden and great decline, yet that arose only from the circumstances that operated during the war; and, in a few years, there can be no doubt that the trade will be greater than it ever has been. The Americans probably will not attempt those manufactures with which they have and may be supplied from England. It will not be their interest to do fo for many years yet to come; and though it is not impossible that they may attempt it, it is very improbable that they will perfevere. The same division of labour that takes place in fingle manufactories, takes place also in towns, counties, and nations; and the advantages arising from it must have been very soon perceived; for all nations are acquainted with barter and exchange; and without division of labour there would have been very little of that in the world. The second will be a second with the second will be a second will be a second will be a second will be a secon

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The American trade requires great capital, for the money returns flowly; therefore probably we may not be able to do to fo great an amount for some years to come as we have done: but if we preserve any fort of friendship with America, as soon as it is our interest and inclination, we shall find it in our power to supply them almost with whatever articles we please. That universal jealousy of trade that pervades mankind, is the most narrow, illiberal thing in the world; and when we wish well to England, we should join in wishing well to Ireland and America: The more money they get, the more we shall have from them. If individuals were to go upon the same principle, that the wealth of their neighbours is a loss to them, the North of Scotland, or the Orkneys, would be the fittest place for an avaritious merchant; for there he would have all the riches to himself. We may pretty safely say, however, that they judge much better who do business and associate with people as rich as themselves.

CONTENTS

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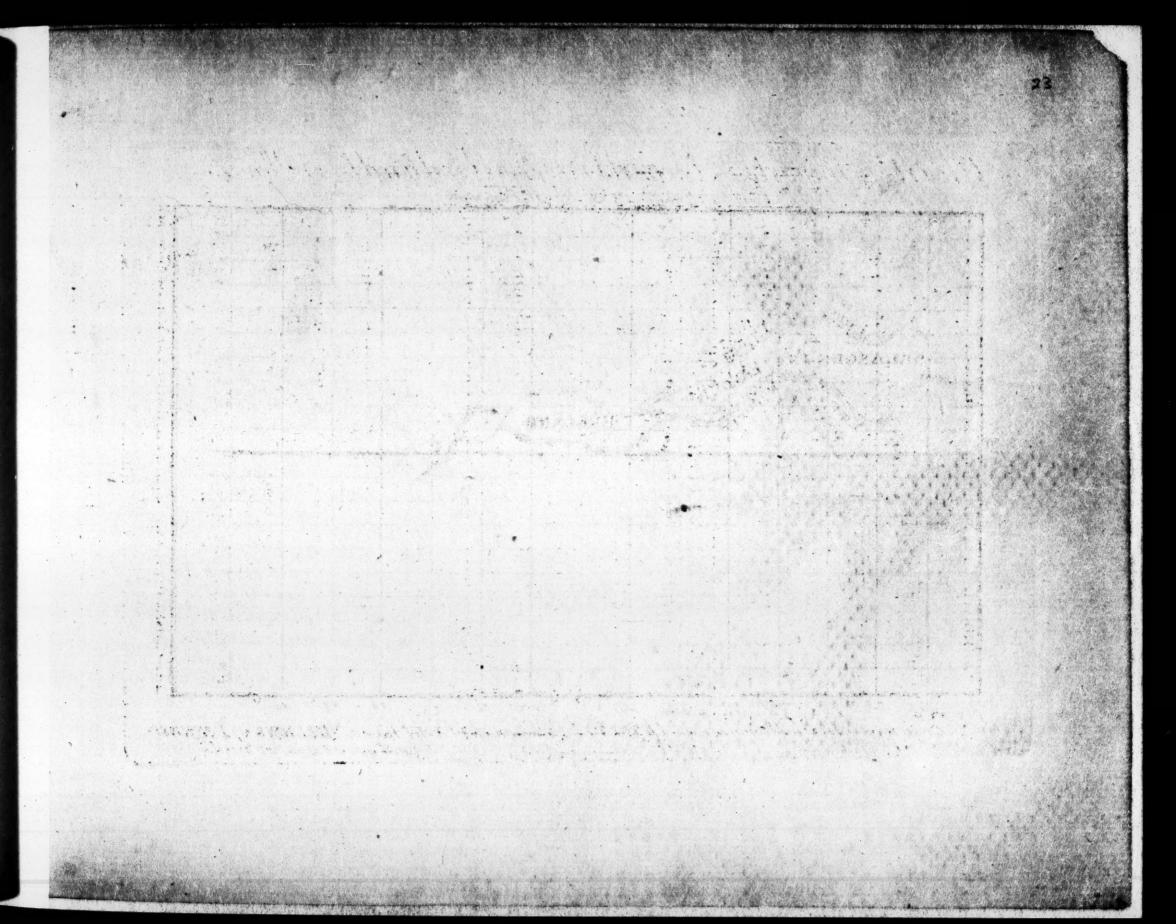
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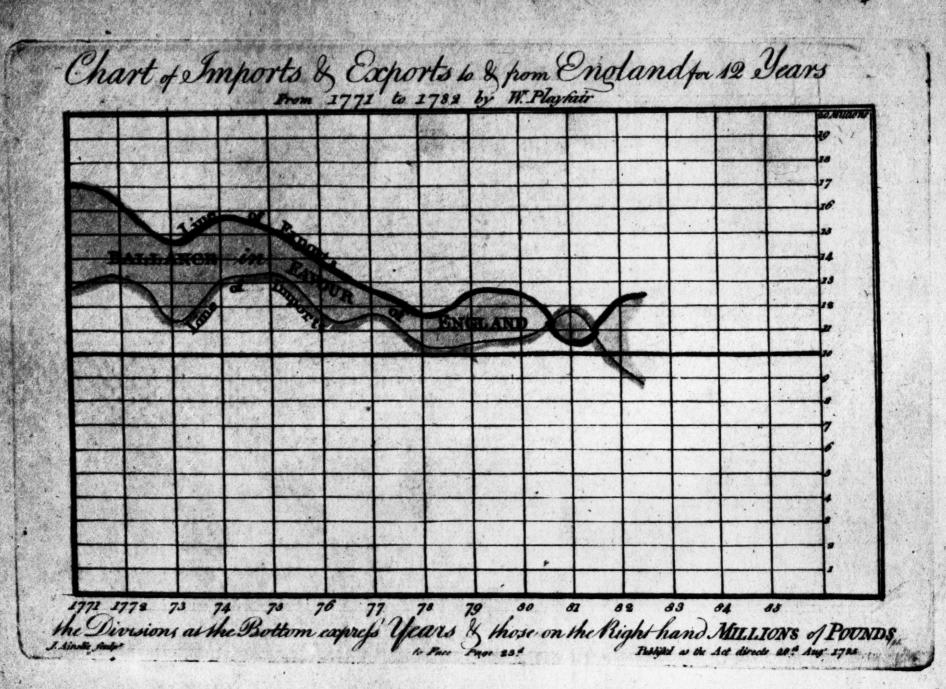
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OBSERVATIONS

ONTHE

CHART OF TRADE FOR TWELVE YEARS,

COMMENCING AT 1770.

FOR the commencement of the present Chart, we have chosen that period when the trade of England was in its zenith, when its extent far exceeded that of former times, and when our glorious commercial career experienced a reverse, that leaves in doubt whether it will ever again be equalled.

The revolutions and events that filled up this late period, with respect to which the other transactions of this nation are but infignificant, have worked a material change on the commercial situation of this country; it has been filled with events the most strange and unprecedented.

It is folly to let melancholy brood over the prospects of adversity; but it is imprudence to turn away from them the eye of observation, while attention or effort can either avert or alter the inauspicious tendency. Such a case is the present, that to say 'we are undone' is folly, and to say that 'we are not in danger', is the most extreme degree of madness and infanity. Endeavouring, then, to shun these extremes, it is our business to examine into and review our affairs in their present shape, and making the true use of information, try from it to discover, what causes have formerly operated, and what may in future be the likely means of conducting our affairs upon a prosperous plan.

The

The circumstances that have been generally looked to, as being the true marks of national

prosperity, are, however, in their nature the most fallacious.

The rife of funds, and the gaiety of those who constitute the affluent part of the nation, have generally been considered as indicating success and prosperity. An English minister, at the head of the treasury, and surrounded by those very scenes of affluence that are but the marks of our decay, deigns not to consider that it is from the state of the laborious, and not of the idle, that a just conclusion concerning our prosperity can alone be formed; and when he perceives, or is informed, that the places of public diversion are more and more crouded every day, concludes

that we are daily growing richer, and more opulent.

The rife of stocks afford also to the exulting statesman, and to the credulous politician, the same pleasing, the same agreeable consolation. However beneficial these may be, as opiates to lell anxiety, however much comfort they may produce to the well-wishers of their country, it is necessary to observe, that it is but a delusion, that they are no certain marks of its prosperity; nay, that they will be the certain attendants upon its decline. When a nation contracts debt in the manner that this does, all those who receive the interest of money for these loans are living without respect to industry; and of those consist the greatest portion of the assumption and the gay. The more money that is borrowed, therefore, the greater must become the croud of the idle and the assumption, who have no connection with any fort of business, and who will naturally reside in the capital, where their money is: thus does it appear, that the greater she debt, the more luxurious and gay will the capital become; and it is only from the capital that any conclusion at all can be formed, with respect to luxury, by those who are at the helm of affairs.

However fallacious an index this may be, in respect to pointing out the state of our affairs, it is not so totally unfair as the other method of computing, by the rise of stocks. Can there possibly be any set of people so ignorant, as to suppose that an extension of trade produces an immediate slow of money to invest in the sunds? It is scarcely possible that, upon considering the ease attentively, any one can be of that opinion; but it is nevertheless certain that most people think

so, just because they are led to that belief by the public prints, and by those whose business, or

whose interest it is to sound the trumpet of public prosperity.

As the extent of trade, and the amount of capital necessary to carry it on, bear a necessary proportion to each other, an extension of trade would require an increase of capital; but, as capital is only acquired by trade, an extension of it cannot immediately be obtained: that must be a work of some time; and therefore the first consequence of extending trade is a want of money. The contrary of this is precisely the case, when any thing happens that occasions a decrease in the extent of our mercantile transactions. For then there is more than the proportional capital necessary to carry on the trade. Thus it happens, that whoever says we are thriving; merely because funds rise, speaks without understanding; for, at a very superficial view, it is evident that, if trade flourished much, people would prefer it to the funds; and by this cause they would for a while be kept down. Any great success of trade, continuing for a number of years, will certainly raise the funds; and their being high, is sometimes a mark of past prosperity; but never is it a sign of great present extension of commerce, but rather of its decline.

This, it may be observed, is supposing the rises and falls of stock to exist on natural and reafonable principles, which they do not always do. It must be owned they do not by any means; nor has national affairs any fort of connection with those temporary rises which owe their existence to a shadow, and their duration to a trick: but the long and durable rises are another matter, and must be connected with national trade and capital; for they are the measure of that portion of our wealth which is not employed in business; and as that may be increased, either by enlarging our capital, or diminishing our trade, it can be no positive proof of

either.

It is of the more consequence to consider this deception attentively, as it may probably hide the decline of our trade and commerce for a considerable time, and therefore may be very dangerous to the welfare of this country.

There may probably have been a variety of causes for the evident decline of our exports during

ring the period now delineated, that are temporary, and therefore of little consebuence; but there are some that are too lasting to be overlooked.

The taxes, which are very enormous, certainly must hurt our manufactures considerably; but they are the more pernicious, that many of them have been very injudiciously laid on They refemble, in some respects, a town built by degrees, at different periods, and by different people, which is seldom either regular or commodious. They require much attention and resorm, and

ought to be investigated with the most minute care and accuracy. ". in a side to visition sall

The numerous and the immense burthens that the manufactures of this country have already sustained, has occasioned a belief that they will bear them to almost any amount. Though it is true that burthens operate in some degree in promoting industry, yet it is but to a very limited extent that they have such a tendency; and, as there must be a point whete that chases to be the operation, it is not unfair to conclude, that the period when trade became affected, and began to diminish, was the same in which this took place. We may, if we go by this rule, fix on the commencement of the last war for that era, when our manufactures would no longer thrive under additional burthens; for the war alone could not have occasioned decay of trade so great as that to which we are now paying attentions. There should be a separate account kept of the money produced by every tax on manufactures; which should be paid great attention to; and the moment it is found to diminish, an inquiry should be made, if it is found to be owing to the operation of the tax itself, then there should not be one moment lost in substituting another tax in its place, at least so far as to counteract the decay that it has occasioned. This may appear to be refining on taxation; but it is according to the true principle upon which all taxes ought to

It is of the more configurated to confider this deception attentively.

The anthor of this received a letter, fuggesting the above idea, from a noble Lord, once high in admininistration, in which, with great clearness and perspicuity, a plan was laid down for the investigation of all the taxes now existing, which would certainly be of much utility to this country.

be; for they should never be laid on so as to prevent or destroy any manufacture, not even the most trisling one that can be imagined *.

The present Chart is intended to exhibit a decline not unequalled during the continuance of any former war; and it naturally leads into an inquiry into the causes to which it owes its existence. In such an inquiry it is necessary to speak freely, or to be silent; and, whatever party it may seem to blame, or to approve, it ought to be unbiassed by either; nor ever should the vehicle of truth, condescend to become the minister of faction, or the support of cabal.

* The reasoning here, to prove that a rise of stocks is not occasioned by an extension of commerce, is false, so far as the money put into our funds by foreigners operates; but that is not to any very great degree, and does not in the least invalidate the general reasoning upon the subject.

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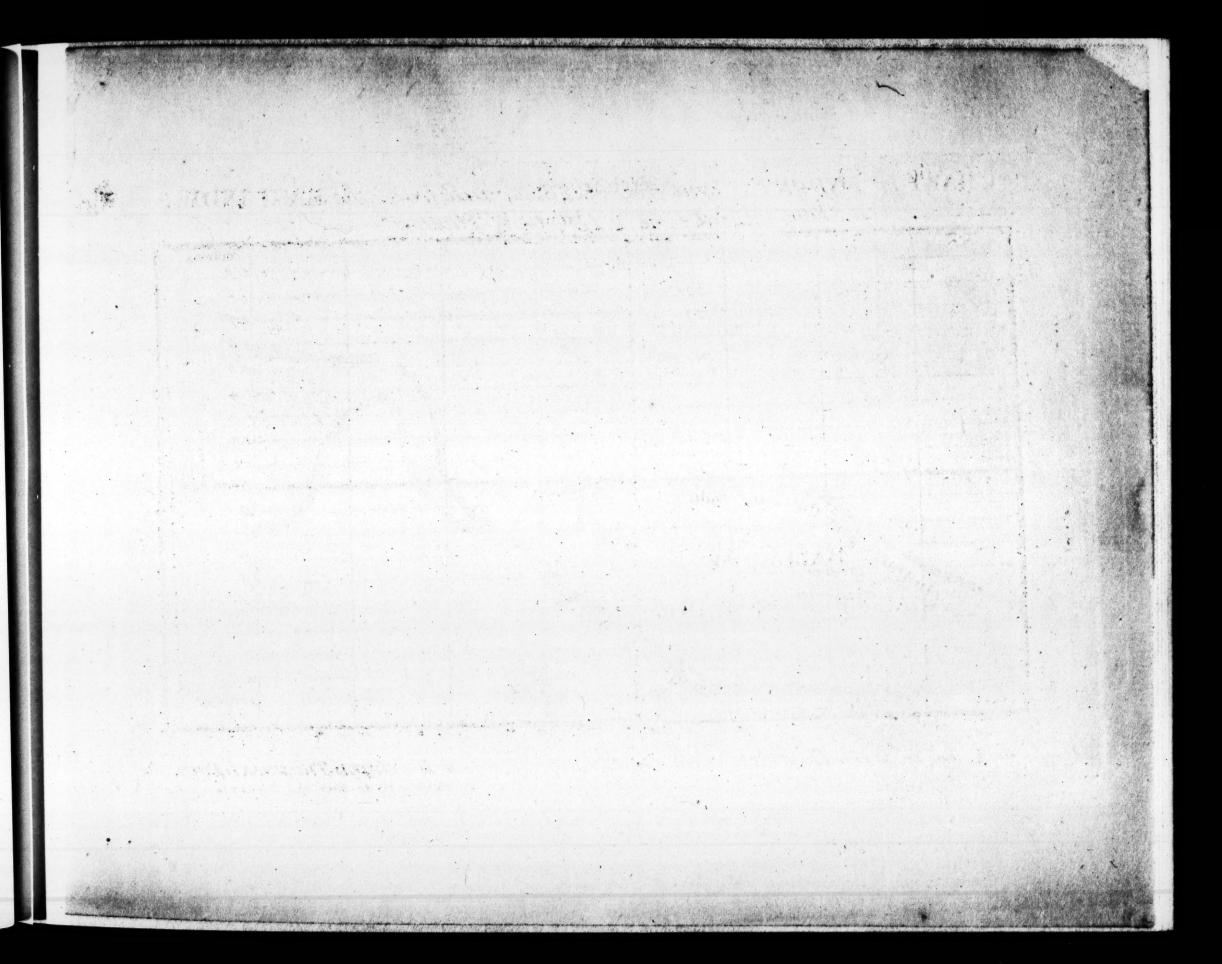
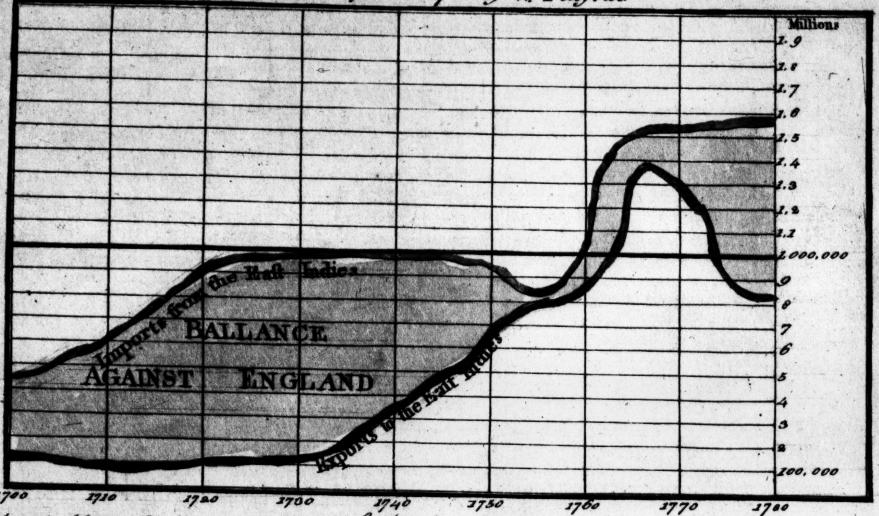


CHART of EXPORTS and IMPORTS to and from the EAST INDIES

From the Year 1700 to 1780 by W. Playfair



the Bottom Line is Divided into Years the Right hand Line into HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS

the transfer of the state of th

HE Chart of our trade with India is given at this time, because the affairs of that country

are likely foon to become objects demanding the utmost attention.

The question will immediately suggest itself to every one: Does this small Chart, does the insignificant sum here delineated, represent truly the transactions of a Company, whose considential servants are princes, whose inserior officers rival in wealth the richest nobility, and whose meaner servants plunder, with impunity, the natural inhabitants of the richest and finest portion of the world? The disproportion between the wealth that is acquired by their servants, and by the Company, is very evident at the first view; nor is the cause itself very deeply concealed. All that part of the riches that come from India, which are originally got by rapacity, must belong to individuals; for, if men are to pass the line of equity, it will generally be in order to serve themselves, and not for the purpose of enriching a Company of Merchants, who have never braved the dangers of war, or encountered the far more dreadful ones of an unhealthful climate.

It does not seem that the affairs of India have ever been conducted upon a right principle. While we have been sovereigns of that country, and preserved it under a despotic military government, the desire of selling in Europe the productions of Asia, when they might with more advantage to ourselves have been disposed of upon the spot, has made it so complicated

a fystem, that it scarcely admits of any such thing as good management.

It is not to be expected, that men of all descriptions, going to a distant country, and a dangerous climate, will return, without endeavouring to amass fortunes, as some recompense for the loss of health and constitution. Were it possible to prevent that, nobody would be found foolish enough to go to India: nor is there any inducement, less than that of a large fortune, which could make men do, what, even with that advantage, it is frequently a missortune to have done.

done. The idea, however, of preventing those various scenes of extortion that are said to be practiced upon the unhappy inhabitants of that rich country, was an honour to the human heart; but the manner in which it has been attempted has not done equal credit to the understanding. To prevent unjustice, is it necessary to be unjust? To prevent oppression, is it necesfary to be armed with the powers to oppress? Such, however, have been the modes proposed for the removal of grievances in India. During the existence of the Roman empire, there were many cases parallel, in some respects, to that of which we now speak. The Roman governors generally plundered the provinces, and, returning to Rome loaded with riches, frequently underwent examinations. They, too, had their pains and penalties, and restraining bills, to prevent or to punish this evil: and, as the features of Roman law were strong, as even their popular government was pretty arbitrary, they foon enacted very fevere laws against this species of oppression. The consequence generally was, that, before a governor dared attempt to meet an investigation, he not only brought home a fortune, but immense sums, to secure, by bribery and corruption, what he had not from justice to expect. The provinces then groaned under a double load of oppression. This, it is probable, may be the case with India. Indeed, there can be little doubt that it will be the case: for, belide the example furnished by the Roman world, there is a fact that might be evident to any observer, with regard to crimes and punishments: that, when punishments are very severe, they increase the enormity of the crimes they were intended to prevent; and they diminish the number, only, when there is a possibility of keeping altogether clear of transgression.

As all people who go to India, even though they may be very good fort of men, are under a necessity of getting more money than the Company allows, they must transgress that line, the passing of which subjects them to punishment; and, when once passed, the utmost severity can

only act as it did with the Roman governors, by making rapacity still more rapacious.

Should it be proposed to put laws so very rigorously in sorce, as to prevent all bribery, or corruption of every sort, then might it indeed prevent the evil of which we have been speaking; but then also another would arise. The rich adventurers in India, preferring the unwholesome climate in which they acquired their wealth, to the insolence of office, and the law's delay, to

the horrors of a dungeon, and that which of all things is the most unsupportable, infamy and disgrace in their native country, would never return; and India, after evading our efforts to govern it right, would govern itself; they would open their ports to the nations of the west and of the north, and they would become themselves the richest nation in the world. They have but unanimously to pass the vote, and they are not a moment longer the subjects of Great Britain. To what resources could we apply, to wage war upon an army of veteran Europeans, at the distance of almost half the globe, and possessing wealth, and property, and gun-powder, to defend themselves against us, for a longer period than we could persist, even were we to mortgage our country?

The matter rests upon a very simple principle, that the riches acquired there are proportioned to the evils encountered in acquiring them. If we increase the evils, the advantages must in-

crease also, else the system will be destroyed.

Thus, it would appear, stand our affairs with India. The great wealth derived from that commerce is brought over by individuals, and has occasioned a very immense increase of riches, luxury, and extravagance, in this country, and tends very much to the precipitating us into that decline, that sooner or later overtakes all nations. Can any thing be more hurtful to real industry, than to perceive the success in acquiring wealth of those who come from that part of the world? It would probably be some advantage to us, if matters were so managed, as to make them declare themselves independent, provided we were determined not to contest the matter; but a contest with India would really be completing the missfortunes of this country. There certainly, however, are methods of preserving it, and, at the same time, preventing those crimes that disgrace human nature, and degrade the character of the civilized European far below that of the innocent Gentoo; but, if it is done, it must be on a principle totally different from what is now about to be tried, one much more mild in every respect, and one that will adapt itself to circumstances, and to the nature of things, not one that goes contrary, in every respect, to the nature of men, and to the nature of the business.

NOTE. The similitude between the affairs of the Roman empire and those of our India Company (to compare great things with small,) seems to have held also in the proportion of the wealth of individuals, and of the state; that of the sormer being very immense, compared with that of the latter.

Lollia Paulina, the niece of a Roman governour *, was able to afford to wear, in her common dress, jewels to the va-

lue of L. 322,916: 13: 4.

Pallas, a freedman of Claudius +, and keeper of his privy purse, was reckoned worth L. 2,421,875, which was all acquired in a short space of time. In general, the affairs of the wealthy people at Rome were upon this immense scale. Pompey's falary t, during four years of his government, was yearly L. 193,750. Yet, when Julius Caefar pillaged the Treasury, at the beginning of the civil war, he found in gold, filver, and in money, (for he took both bullion and money), only L. 1,095,979 &, which was a very small sum indeed. It was not even equal to the debts that Caesar had contracted, without any other than personal security; for, though Crassus, and other rich men, were bound in large sums for him, yet it was only after his creditors would not let him go to his province. This is a clear proof of the smallness of the wealth of the state, when compared with that of individuals, who had provinces to pillage. For, though Caesar's great abilities and political character entitled him to greater personal credit than any man that ever lived, yet it is a proof that politics, either by governing provinces, or taking bribes, must have been considered as extremely lucrative, there is no reason to believe that at any time the revenues of that immense empire were above eighteen millions English money; a small revenue, when compared with the extent of territory, and the manners of the times. The conclusion is pretty fair, that those masters of the world, who had conquered, and actually got rent for great part of the lands in the empire, when they had taxed every thing that was taxable, even finoke, air, and shade ||, (a degree beyond Britain, which has got only the length of taxing light,) did not receive great fums into their public treasury, but that the individual ministers of their oppression, like those of later times, retained in their own possession the far greater portion of the wealth extorted from the provinces.

• Plin. Lib. 9. Cap. 15.

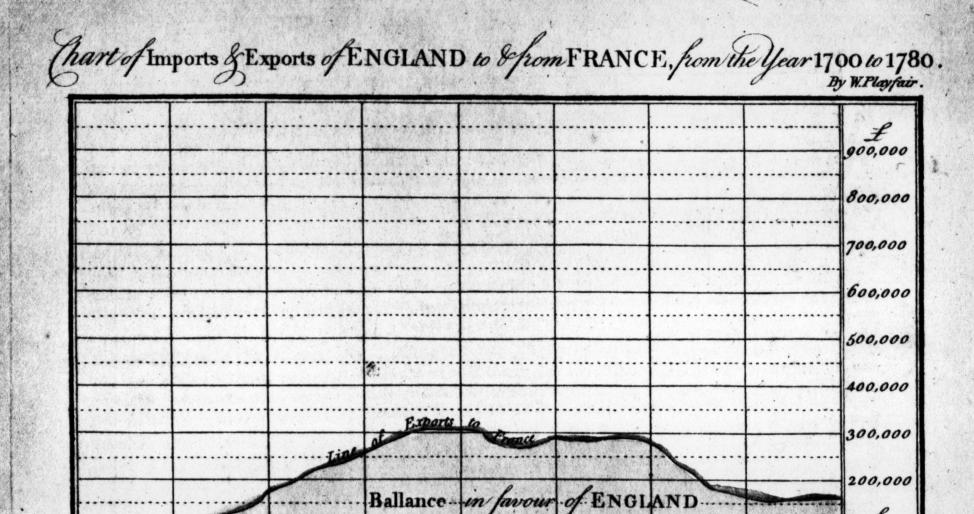
§ Plin. Lib. 3. Cap. 3.

† Tacit. Lib. 12. ‡ Plutar. in Pompeio. Zonaras. Fumum, aërem, et umbram.

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to wealth, for even to tabilificance, than that of ittem. Singlegling holds up to the followance beginning a living of gentiage at perhaps of certing rich, that is to them for more agreeable than that of

E have now before us a very fallacious representation of the trade between two countries, which, from their situation, as well as from the nature of their productions, we might expect to find immense; yet which, through the strange policy of two of the most polished nations in the world, is extremely inconsiderable.

very far is they have done in this cais. There cannot be a doubt that the illicit trade far exceeds in amount that here delineated: which can include only what is regularly entered. This trade furnishes us with an astonishing instance of the inefficacy of laws that are injudiciously enacted, and which furnish too great a reward for evading themselves. When it is intended absolutely to prevent the importation of an article altogether, (though that is a very foolish intention in any case), then the higher the duties are the better; but, if revenue is the object, then the problem becomes much more difficult, and involves many different cases, though in general it is found much more destructive of the end, to lay on duties that are too high, than fuch as are rather too low. Of the truth of this, our trade with France is a strong instance; for the duties laid on by both nations, and the laws made, have counteracted and destroyed themselves. Perhaps, if they had stopped at that point, when they had destroyed the effect that they were intended to produce, the evil would not be very great, at least it would have, what is, if possible, some good even in a bad thing, a limit; but it unluckily has none; for the evils that refult from, and which owe their original existence to illicit trade, are either not confined by any bound, or that bound is so very extensive, as not easily to be discovered. Nothing hurts the minds of men so much as a temptation to do things in a concealed and hidden manner. It makes them at once acquainted with the modes of hurting mankind; they become estranged from those people whose works bear the light of day, and they gradually proceed to every fort of immorality. Industry and prosperity are hurt by whatever is unfriendly to virtue; but it is also very much hurt by the idea of there being any other road to wealth, or even to subsistence, than that of itself. Smuggling holds up to the idle a method of getting a living, and perhaps of getting rich, that is to them far more agreeable than that of regular labour. Therefore the duties laid on French goods are productive of other effects than those that are merely confined to the trade itself; and therefore they merit the more particular attention.

lt is difficult to conceive how two well informed nations can miltake their real interests lo very far as they have done in this case. England has, however, in general, been more to blame than France; for it is usually the case, that people who are very tenacious, overshoot the mark; and we have frequently done so; but in no case more ridiculously than in that now before us.

The advantages that would refult to both countries, from a more liberal system of commerce, are very numerous; but the difficulty is to persuade both nations of that at the same time. That same proximity of situation that would render the commerce so very advantageous, has given rise to those laws that have nearly destroyed it altogether; and the absurd idea of letting commercial concerns be regulated by that rankling animosity which is so conspicuously great between near neighbours when they go to war, has at all times inclined either one or other of the nations to oppose any system founded upon a good understanding, or good sense, in the time of peace. When two individuals meet to make a transaction of any kind, they no doubt must always be sensible that their interests are opposite; but they do not on that account conclude, that either of them is of necessity to be injured by the transaction; nor does any party wish it to be disadvantageous to the other: but, when the two nations of which we now speak make a commercial arrangement, they seem to be actuated by a very strange combination of interests and intentions; they wish very properly for their own interest, and as improperly wish to pre-

vent that of the other; and they forget that advantages that are not reciprocal are of short duration.

Upon the whole, there is not a thing more to be defired than a commerce with France, upon enlarged and liberal principles; nor would the advantages be less to that country than to this; we should both be greatly benefited by such an arrangement; and, added to the solid advantages that we may certainly expect, there would be something so agreeable in doing business considentially, with neighbours so near to us, and whom we certainly respect individually in a very high degree, that it is peculiarly to be defired: and, as mankind certainly understand their interest better and better daily, and as there certainly will be a lasting treaty of commerce between England and France, when they come fully to understand their own interests, it is to be hoped that the time when that may be expected is not now far distant.

ITALY,

vant that of the other; and it y forget that advantages that are not reciprocal are of thore

chiarged and direct principles; nor would the advantages be left to thet country than to this; enterged and directly beneatly beneated by fact an arrangement; and, added to the folia advantages that we may certainly expect, there would be fomerhing so agreeable in doing bullness considerable, with neighbours so near to us, and whom we certainly respect individually in a very high degree, that it is peculiarly to be defined: and, as mankind certainly understand their instends better and better daily, and as there certainly will be a jasting treaty of commerce between that the time when they come fully to understand their countries on the long of that the time when that may be expected is not now far diffant.

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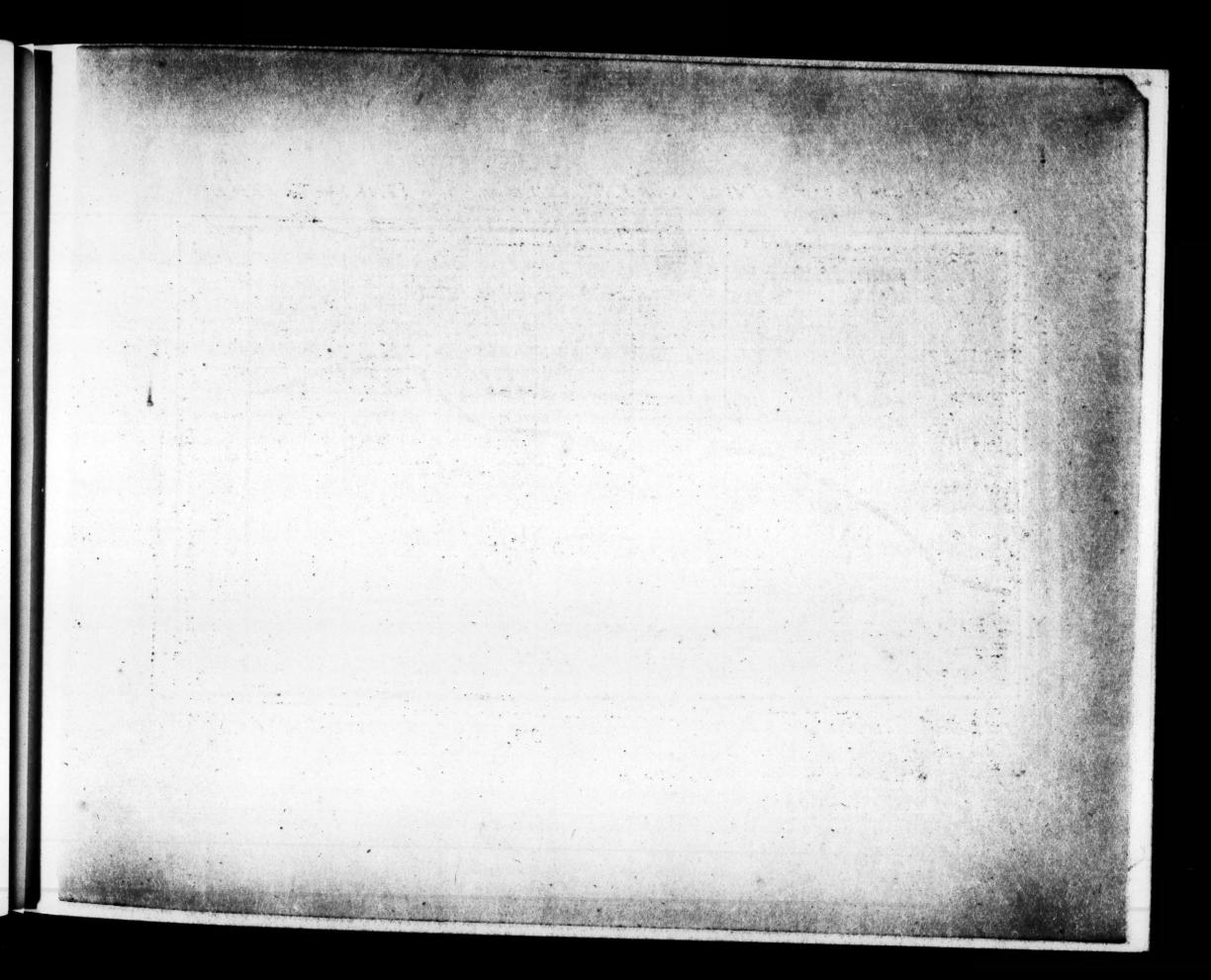
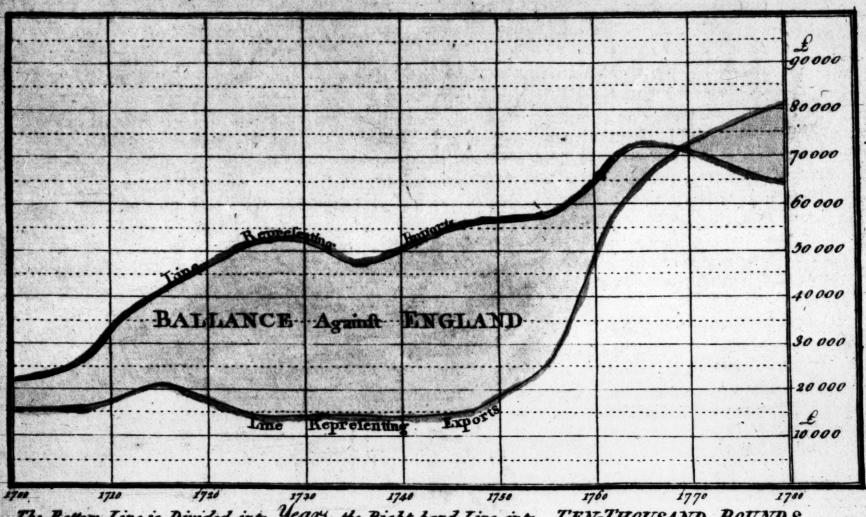


CHART of EXPORTS and IMPORTS of ENGLAND to and from ITALY and VENICE



The Bottom Line is Divided into YEATS the Right hand Line into TEN-THOUSAND POUNDS

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ITALY, INCLUDING VENICE.

THERE is scarcely any branch of trade that admits of fewer remarks than that carried on

between this country and Italy.

The commerce, which is not great in its amount, is not increased by any artificial means. The naturally fine, luxurious, and elegant productions of that country, will always oblige every polished and luxurious nation to apply there, either directly or indirectly, for those things which no other part of the world can furnish in an equally perfect state; and the indolent habits of men who boast of being descended from the masters of the world, will lay them under an equal

necessity of applying to the less noble but more industrious part of mankind.

No country in the world has undergone so many reverses as Italy. After first emerging from insignificance, by subduing all its neighbours, and after being ruined by the luxury occafioned by their spoils, and falling a facrifice to its own wealth and glory, it exalted itself a second time, and governed by religion the minds of men, with a more despotic sway, than it had by arms governed their persons. This second reign having also come to an end, the inhabitants of that country, famous for arms, religion, and the fine arts, cannot sloop to the drudgery of common industry, and it is now inferior to most other nations in those mechanic arts, by which power, wealth, and political consequence, are in this age acquired. It exhibits a striking example of the uncertainty of wealth and power, when not supported by industry and occonomy, and the seat of arts, of arms, and of Augustus, divided into a number of small principalities, of little consequence to the commerce or the politics of the rest of Europe.

ITALY, INCLUDING VENTOF.

FETHER II is country any branch of made that admits of fewer remarks than their country and hady.

the commerce, which is not great in its emount, is not increased by any antificion aceas. The naturally fine, havened, and elegant productions of the country, and always oblig every relief and incomions narious narious apply there, entier directly or indirectly, to choic things which no other part of the world can armite in an equally period flute; and the indirect of nature of the indirect reaching the states of the major wastings of an example of applying to the life the halo but reach industries and are applying to the life while but reach industries are grantly of applying to the life while but reach industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying to the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying the life of the life while the motor industries are grantly of applying the life of the life o

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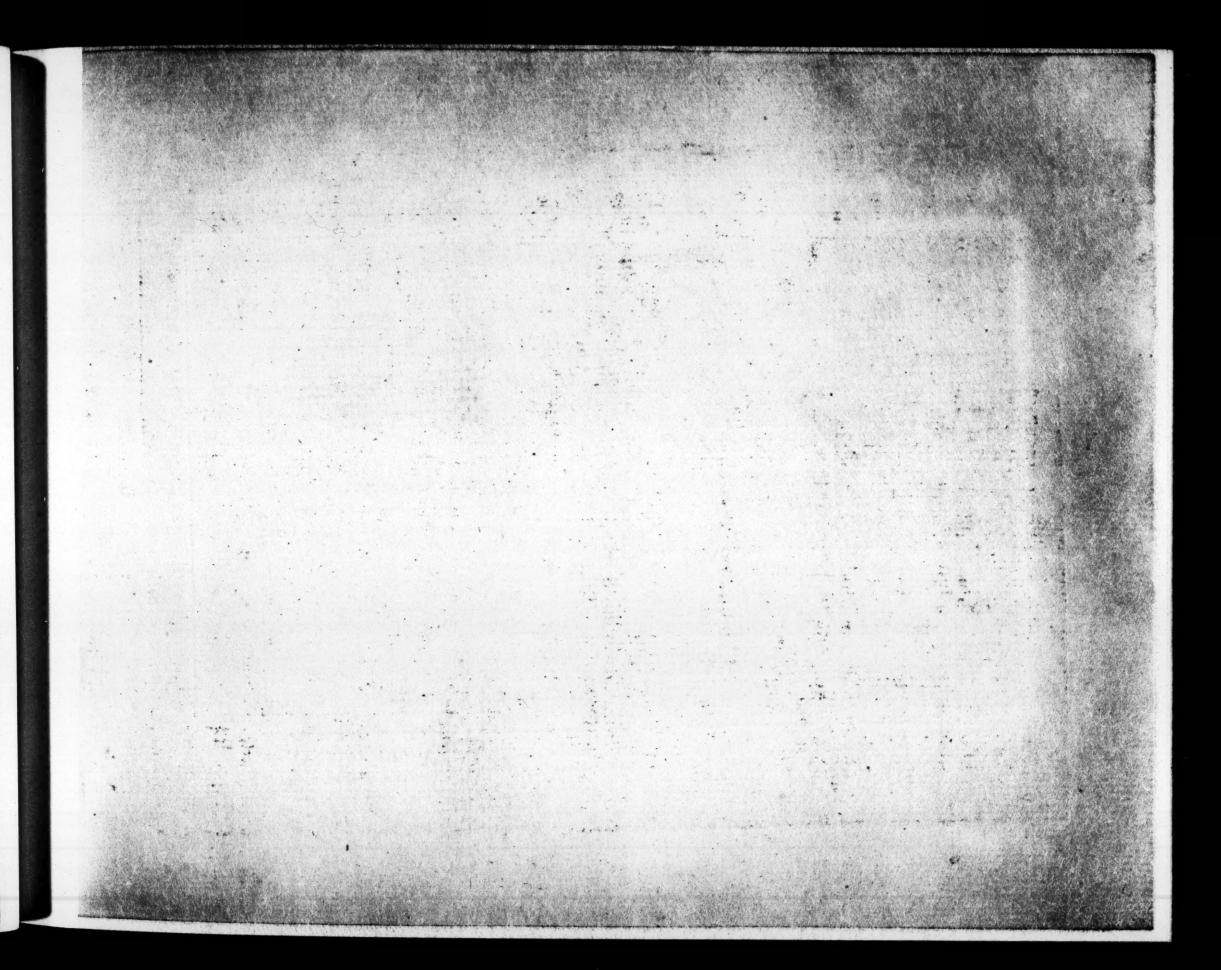
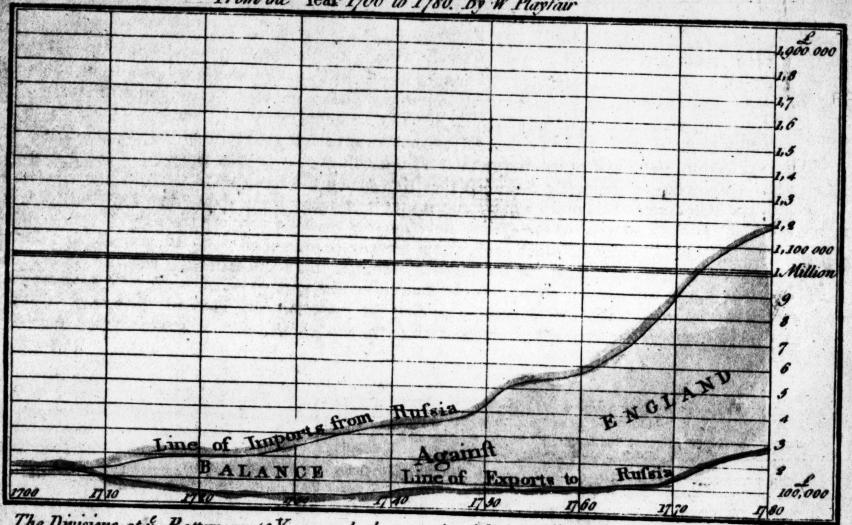


CHART of EXPORTS and IMPORTS of ENGLAND to and from RUSSIA From the Year 1700 to 1780. By W Playfair



The Divisions at y Bottom are 10 Years each, those on the right hand are HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS each

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Published as the Act directs Augo 20 th 1785

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HE Russian empire, which was scarcely known to the other powers of Europe till the middle of the fifteenth century, has not hitherto had wealth enough to spare to be able to purchase great quantities of goods from any country. The extent of the empire of all the Russias will have a curious effect upon its trade, for it will operate in two ways. The circumstance of its extending so far from north to south, and by that means having all sorts of soil, and varieties of climate, within itself, and producing almost all the things that are necessary to a nation, must

render its necessity of importing to be less than that of a smaller territory.

Again, that extent of territory will be unfavourable in many particulars. The government, for one thing, must be adapted to the extent, and therefore must be very arbitrary, or, if not, it will be very ill obeyed; either of which prevents the security of individual property, and will therefore never allow arts, manufactures, or commerce, to flourish in a high degree. The articles, therefore, that Russia will export, will probably always be the natural productions of the country; and its imports will chiefly consist of those articles, the manufacturing of which thrive best in well regulated countries like England. In proportion to the fize of the country, however, the trade will always

In the reign of Queen Mary, an embassy was sent from the Czar. The ambassadors were wrecked on the coast of Scotland, where they were hospitably entertained, and proceeding to London were well received, (Hollingshed, page 732.). This seems to have been the first intercourse which that empire had with the western potentates of Europe, (Hume's Hist. Vol. iv. page 447.). Should the Russian empire continue to be governed by able sovereigns who improve it as the present Empress and her predecessors have done, and if also the system of preserving a balance among the powers of Europe continues, the Russian empire will probably be divided into different empires or kingdoms; otherwise it will then be so far above the due proportion of weight, that it will be inconsistent with the rest of the system.

always be inconsiderable; for, if it were necessary, Russia is sufficiently various in productions to do without importing any thing at all; and it never will be (taking the whole nation together,) a very polished and luxurious people. The court, indeed, and a small portion of the empire, may be more magnificent, and more luxurious, than any in Europe; for it has a greater extent of territory from which to be supported; but its extremities will never flourish highly; nor will all the vigour of the descendents of Peter the Great be able to spread wealth and industry, with their happy effects, through the distant extremities of so extensive a portion of the world.

This trade, although it is long fince a Russia Company was established, has, till within these fifty years, been but very inconfiderable. Our imports from thence have increased rapidly, but our exports very little; perhaps for this reason; that, even at the beginning of that period, the court at Moscow was magnificent and luxurious, nearly as much so as it is yet, and therefore probably wanted many of our manufactures; but the extent of country wants none even to this day; for, if it did, what we fend over is fearcely sufficient to furnish every peafant in that extenfive empire with a knife to cut his meat. But, altho' the confumption of articles of luxury has not extended much beyond the wheal limit of the great cities and the court, yet the production of goods for exportation must have increased very considerably under the auspices of a succession of able fovereigns, who had the good of the country much at heart. It is probable from this, that the balance of the trade of Russia will be in its favour with almost every other country, as well as with England; and, therefore, that they must be getting richer. The natural consequence, in a small country, would be, to become luxurious; and perhaps even they may do so, at the end of a long period; but it will be a long one; for, at this time, the improvements necessary that they may avail themselves of the advantages of some parts of their dominions, and that they may counteract the difadvantages of others, will fwallow up whatever balance may be in their favour, for many years, even for centuries yet to come. When that progress comes to a period, then may we perhaps have a balance that is not fo much against us.

Of all the trades that we carry on, there is not any of which we are more secure than this. The vicinity of situation, the side that we naturally take in the politics of Europe, the productions of that country, and the nature of the manufactures of this, tend to establish it upon grounds the most sure. The nature of it is such, that we need not be very anxious whether it extends much or not. Should the trade fall off, it will hurt Russia, but it will not signify a great deal to us, particularly as we can make iron, and raise several other of the articles we import from thence,

The Russian empire bids fair to shine, in some future period, as a warlike people; but, for its commerce, there is not much to be faid. Though the short time that has elapsed since Russian began to make a figure in the world does not surnish us with a full proof of this, yet the presumption is in its favour; for, even in early times, its commerce * has been still more insignificant than its consequence as a nation: and, as a farther confirmation of this opinion, we may just consider what all the Russian united would be, were they as well cultivated and civilized as England, and if manusactures slourished equally under a free government. The immense empire would in that event be able to swallow up all the other powers of Europe, in case of war; and, in times of peace, might have every necessary, and almost every article of luxury, without importing a single cask of goods from any European nation.

^{*} In the year 1569, the Czar John Basilides, who was a great tyrant, gave to Queen Elisabeth an exclusive patent to the whole trade of Muscovy, (Cambden, page 403.), and she, in return agreed that, in case of a revolt of his subjects, he should have a safe retreat in England. After the death of John Basilides, his son Theodore revoked the patent. During the existence of that patent, the English carried goods along the river Dwina, in boats made of a single tree, which they towed up the stream as far as Walogda. From thence they carried goods seven days journey over land to Yeraslaw, then down the Volga to Astracan, where they built ships, crossed the Caspian Sea, and sold their manusactures in Persia. This was a very bold mercantile adventure; but, from the difficulty and discouragement, was never renewed, (Cambden, Page 418.). This happened about sisteen years before we had any trade with Turkey, and the establishment of that Company.

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CONTENTS OF THE PLATES IN NUMBERS.

| PLATE | VI. GENERA | L TRADE for | I welve Years. | PLATE | OVIL E | LSI INI | DIES. |
|--------|-------------|-------------|----------------|--------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|
| Years. | Imports. | Exports. | Balance. | Years. | Imports. | Exports. | Balancel |
| 1771. | 12,800,000 | 17,150,000 | 4,350,000 | 1700. | 440,000 | 140,000 | 300,000 |
| 1772. | 13,300,000 | 16,150,000 | 2,850,000 | 1710. | 595,000 | 95,000 | 506,000 |
| 1773. | 11,400,000 | 14,750,000 | 3,350,000 | 1720. | 880,000 | 120,000 | 760,000 |
| 1774. | 13,250,000 | 15,900,000 | 2,650,000 | 1730. | 965,000 | 145,000 | 820,000 |
| 1775. | 13,550,000 | 15,200,000 | 1,650,000 | 1740. | 970,000 | 360,000 | 610,000 |
| 1776. | 11,700,000 | 13,700,000 | 2,000,000 | 1750. | 930,000 | 700,000 | 230,000 |
| 1777. | 11,850,000 | 12,650,000 | 800,000 | 1760. | 1,005,000 | 880,000 | 125,000 |
| 1778. | 10,250,000 | 11,550,000 | 1,300,000 | 1770, | 1,515,000 | 1,330,000 | 185,000 |
| 1779. | 10,650,000 | 12,650,000 | 2,000,000 | 1780. | 1,550,000 | 840,000 | 710,000 |
| 1780. | 10,750,000 | 12,550,000 | 1,800,000 | and Children | 000,000 | | |
| 1781. | 11,900,000 | 10,550,000 | 1,350,000 | 1 | M. T | stens of the | on our |
| 1782. | 9,500,000 | 12,350,000 | 2,850,000 | | | daiffor ,estab | |
| | | | | | | tools moffa | o as most |
| | PLATE VIII. | FRAI | VCF. | PLAT | E IX. VEN | NICE AND I | TALY. |
| | | | 12001 | | | | |
| Years. | | | Balance. | Years. | Imports. | Exports. | Balance. |
| 1700. | 20,000 | 30,000 | 10,000 | 1700. | 22,000 | 15,500 | 6,500 |
| 1710. | 50,000 | 75,000 | 25,000 | 1710. | 32,200 | 17,500 | 14,700 |
| 1720. | 48,000 | 175,000 | 127,000 | 1720. | 46,500 | 18,000 | 28,500 |
| 1730. | 51,000 | 255,000 | 204,000 | 1730. | 52,500 | 14,500 | 38,000 |
| 1740. | 57,000 | 305,000 | 252,000 | 1740. | 50,000 | 14,300 | 35,700 |
| 1750. | 31,000 | 285,000 | 254,000 | 1750. | 56,000 | 18,500 | 37,500 |
| 1760. | 55,000 | 275,000 | 220,000 | 1760. | 64,000 | 50,000 | 14,000 |
| 1770. | 80,000 | 165,000 | 85,000 | 1770. | 71.000 | 72,500 | 1,500 |
| 1780. | 45,000 | 155,000 | 110,000 | 1780. | 65.500 | 81,000 | 15,500 |
| | | | | | | | |

PLATE X. RUSSIA.

| Years. | Imports. | Exports. | Balance. |
|--------|-----------|----------|----------|
| 1700. | 109,000 | 135,000 | 26,000 |
| 1710. | 140,000 | 100,000 | 40,000 |
| 1720. | 195,000 | 50,000 | 145,000 |
| 1730. | 235,300 | 45,000 | 190,000 |
| 1740. | 335,000 | 75,000 | 260,000 |
| 1750. | 440,000 | 85,000 | 355,000 |
| 1760. | 570,000 | 98,000 | 472,000 |
| 1770. | 890,000 | 133,000 | 757,000 |
| 1780. | 1,185,000 | 290,000 | 895,000 |

The Contents of the Tables, as well as the Lines of the Charts, which correspond, are averaged from the Custom House Books.

The Navy and Army affairs will be from Reports and Papers laid before Parliament at different times.

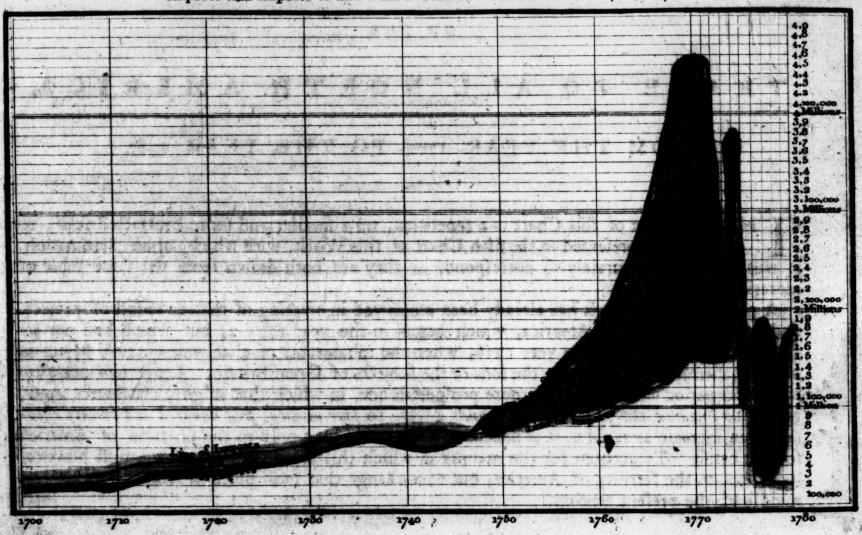
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Imports and Exports to and from NORTH AMERICA from 1700 to 1780.



The Bottom Line is divided into Years that on the Right hand into L 100,000 each.

Published as the Au atrees, 2" May 1786, by W." Playlair.

Neele roulp! 3.52 Swand, London.

TRADE TO ALL NORTH AMERICA,

meaning of certains that is a property of the party of the lands FROM THE YEAR 1700 TO THE YEAR 1780.

is a first plan whether goods are wasten, or will be paid for, is often verification THE latter part of this Chart is a repetition, on a smaller and more contracted scale, of what was represented in the fifth Chart of this Work, with which, upon examination. it will be found accurately to correspond, as they are both drawn from the same table of

A portion of this work has already been employed in treating of that downfall of project, and decrease of trade to America, which began in the year 1771-2, but which had not its complete destruction till the year 1776, when the inhabitants of that wide country began to consider themselves as no longer the sons or the subjects of Great Britain. Let us now compare this latter period with the former more prosperous one, in which that mighty commerce grew, from two bundred and fifty thousand pounds a year, to four millions five hundred and twenty thoufand; an increase as rapid as it is unaccountable, if we look only to the situation of America for the cause. To account for the manner in which this mushroom grew, we must however look, not to the fertility of America, but to a change that took place in England about the middle of the prefent century.

N N

The manner in which commerce has been carried on to America is very different from what it was at the beginning of this century, or from what it had been in any former period, or to

any other country.

In the infancy of commerce, a demand for commodities preceded the manufacture or the traffic in them; and before a thip was freighted to carry goods to a distant port, there was a pretty great degree of certainty that they were wanted at that port; nor did the inquiry stop at whether they could use the things, but whether also they would be willing to purchase them, and pay the money. Speculations then were limited; and every thing was reduced to a certainty, except the dangers of the sea. ! It is different now: the dangers of the sea are reduced to a certainty; but whether the goods are wanted, or will be paid for, is often very uncertain. This has been in a peculiar manner the case with our commerce to America. "Tho every state of things does, during its existence, naturally undergo changes and refinements that were unknown at first, and mercantile business has, like other things, improved in its modes, and though letters and foreign correspondencies have long superfeded the necessity of merchants going themfelves to fea, yet nothing can superfede the necessity of the purchasers of the goods being in a condition to pay for them. This, however, was not thought worth while to inquire into, with our own countrymen and our children, as we were pleased to stile them in Americal So truch was this the case, that if a young than, who was known to have been in the service of a merchant, and not to be entirely deftirude of fenfe or conduct, chofe to apply for credit in Engt that fitty the west to pounts a year, to four nections five trindered and two

Were Shakespeare to write the play of the Merchant of Venice how, instead of introducing a story about the loss of his Argosies, he would say, "The men to whom I sent goods, to whom I consigned my property, my agents, my friends, (or perhaps) my partners, refuse to remit me the money due, and I am utterly undone."

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land, upon the faith of having opened a connection with America, he could get ten times more

credit than a sober, industrious man, who confined his trade to his own country.

Until about the middle of this century, the North-Americans, who have neither gold nor filver produced in their country, and who therefore must pay in goods and not in money, used to send over produce to a greater amount than they bought our manufactures; we were rich, and could pay a balance in hard cash, the thing that they stood in need of much. This was right; it was just as it should be, and as it would have continued to be, had not a change taken place in this country, which put an end to that; and the natural proportion was lost, in an instant, between what they bought and what they sold: that regular proportion then, which half a century had seen take place, was at once enirely done away. It was about the same time that a change took place among our merchants; and a number of men aspired to that lucrative and respectable situation, who had no property to risk, no money to lose, and who were willing to play with the property of other men, to their own advantage. America, a branch of our empire, the same language, people, and religion, afforded a wide field, and it was occupied.

Should a speculator who went in this loose manner to work, prove successful by getting returns, he became a rich Englishman; and if he failed, America, that place to which he had consigned the fortunes of his industrious countrymen, afforded asylum from all the local incon-

veniencies of his misfortunes.

In this very manner, and it must be remembered by many people now living, did the American trade increase: false capitals and false credits increased also; they existed dependent upon each other; and as a proof of this, in the year 1771-2, which will long continue to be remem-

[†] There were numbers of people who declared openly, at the time that they were sure, the Americans never could pay for half the goods that were sent them; and the event has fully verified the apprehension.

bered as the time when personal credit received an uncommonly severe check, we find this trade decrease no less than two millions. Other branches of trade did not feel this. It is therefore fair to conclude, that between false credit and American trade, there existed a real or a sympathetic connection. Had not the war or some other circumstance happened to put an end to this exportation business, the capital of our English merchants, or rather of the English manufacturers, might have continued to march over to America, and we should imperceptibly have received an injury, of the extent of which we were not aware.

Were this not a thing that has so lately happened, that most people must remember, and some people feel the effects of circumstances that confirm it, some time might be well employed

in bringing proofs; of which, as matters are, a few may ferve.

Most part of those young adventurers who have begun without capital of their own, or knowledge, have begun in the American trade.

English manufactures are said to have sold frequently, even fince the war, as cheap, and

fometimes cheaper in America than they have done in England.

Could these things possibly have happened, if American trade had not been carried on under different rules and auspices from other braches of commerce, or from what they were in the

former part of this period?*

Again, as another and a farther proof of this, let us consider the wants of men, and their abilities to supply them. Do they not go on in a necessary proportion, and does not the ability generally precede the supply? As we possessed almost all the trade of America, its increase admits of more accurate reasoning than any of the other branches, of which we only possessed a small

[•] Mr. Addison, who knew the world, and represented it truly in his Spectator, in the year 1711, gives, in a speech of Sir Andrew Freeport, a fine picture of the manners and secure mode of doing business of merchants at that time.

finall portion, and which might therefore increase or decrease, without the whole amount of

the trade undergoing any material alteration.

The value of the goods that we imported from America is probably a pretty fair measure of their abilities, and shews the rate at which their wealth increased. If their riches increased in that line, then should our exports to America have risen nearly at the same rate: and accordingly, till the year 1755, it goes in a direction nearly parallel; but after that, it goes in a line so entirely different, that there cannot remain a doubt, that to produce so very opposite an effect, another cause must have begun to operate. Nor is there any cause sufficiently great to have produced this effect, or likely to have done it, except the very one which we have already been considering.

To make a parade of reasoning on any subject, is equally disgusting and ridiculous; but to pass over in a superficial manner, without examining to the bottom of a subject, is worse: and it seems, in this case, to be necessary to inquire into the cause of that change in our mer-

cantile system, as well as into the effects it has produced.

There feems to have been for this two causes. The actual wealth and capital of this coun-

try, and paper credit.

Ever fince the invention of paper credit, trade has had a latitude it did not before enjoy, and its progress being less natural, has become more intricate. That bound set and preserved by the nature of things was removed, when paper credit was first invented; for, before that time, nothing represented wealth that was not wealth itself, or that was not physically worth the sum that it represented; and in order to give credits in business, it was absolutely necessary either to possess or to have borrowed a capital. Nations could not then extend their trade; the trade extended itself, and like other natural productions, grew in proportion to what it had been. The effects of this invention it is not necessary to investigate in all their extent. It has been of infinite utility to mankind, upon the whole; at the same time that it was undoubtedly the means

of enabling this false structure of American trade to be raised with the greater conveniency. By means of paper the inconveniency of giving long credit is in a great degree taken away; and very long credits were necessary in trading to America. Besides, that, as drawing bills produces, in the first instance, the same effect with having discovered a treasure, though in the end often operating as if one had been lost, it leads to the speculating too far, and being involved, before it is perceived by the individual that he is in any danger. This cause alone, however, could not have operated sufficiently to produce so great a trade, had not the other of the actual wealth of our manufacturers induced them, and enabled them to part with their goods at some risk, and to be paid at a long day.

Upon the whole, this Chart exhibits, under different circumstances, a very strong and a

very curious contrast.

For the first fifty years, we observe the simple and regular growth, from poverty to wealth, of a new country; during the succeeding twenty years, we are assonished at the extent and operation of a mad mercantile speculation carried on by our own country; and the last short period shews the catastrophé that so airy and so ill-sounded a project was likely, sooner later, to experience. There is not any branch of trade, which, from the nature of its progress, affords so much instruction as this. It merits equally the attention of the philosopher, the politician, and the merchant; for it throws light upon all the three different objects of their study.

Upon the manner in which business is conducted, depends something more than merely the gaining or losing a little money. The happiness of numbers of innocent individuals is frequently depending upon the success of projects, with the formation of which they had no concern. What numbers have been ruined, and how many more have been deprived of fortune,

by our ill-conducted trade with America?

It is an improper subject for discussion here, whether happiness is, or is not of more importance than existence itself: many people think with Julius Cæsar that it is; but we run no

risk certainly in affirming that it is of very great consequence; and that, as it in a considerable degree depends upon the success of mercantile affairs, they, as well as the methods of prolonging

life or procuring health, deferve our attention.

To acquire knowledge of the nature and arrangement of the human frame, seminaries are erected, and the graves are ranfacked; for they wifely know, that unless it is made a particular fludy, and unless former cases are attended to and understood, they can do nothing in preventing future disease. No pains or attention is taken, however, to prevent those evils that wrong projects and unforcefsful mercantile speculation so widely diffuse. This has not, except by a few individuals, ever been considered as an object deserving attention. Nor has, in this study, any great attention been paid to the connection between cause and effect; a connection that it is necessary to know, and to understand which, the comparison between past events is indisputably the most obvious, as well as the most certain road. Most men are very slow to enter into what is reckoned a new thing; and there feems to be a very universal as well as great reluctance to undergoing the drudgery of acquiring information that feems not to be absolutely neceffary. It feldom appears necessary in a high degree, to understand subjects that have not hitherto been objects of attention. The capital, the arts, and the industry, of this country, are too great to be entirely employed without some speculation; and the principles, therefore, on which speculations should be made, will become an object deserving and requiring attention, not less fo than the art of preserving the health of the human body.

With all due regard to the opinion of mankind, which ultimately stamps a value, or its opposite, on human inventions, the Author of this presumes to think that the mode of painting to the eye the transactions of past times, is a considerable step in making that investigation easy, which he apprehends to be necessary. It is in order to make use of vision that the anatomist lectures over a dead body; the mathematician over a figure drawn upon a surface; and the astronomer over his globes and orerys: without which, the labour would be encreased, and the progress

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diminished. The lines here used to represent quantity and time, do it with a mathematical exactness that is not to be called in question, and enable the same advantage to be obtained that these scenes deserve from vision. To make this idea the more familiar (for many men to whom it is hoped this may be useful, and who are deeply concerned in the subject, are not accustomed to abstract reasoning) let the Chart before us be supposed to be the dead body of American trade*. lying diffected upon a table, and a lecture given upon it by a furgeon, he would fay, "Gentlemen, this line, marked exports from America, is a measure of the strength of that " country, the animal vigor, or in other words, the burthen that it would be able to bear. The " other line, of imports to America, as merchants call it, but which we call the burthen it bas " to bear, ought, in order that matters may go on well, to be fomething under the line that " marks its firength: this, you may eafily perceive, is necessary that it may continue to exist. "You perceive also that for a number of years it was so, but that suddenly it became other-" wife, and ended in total ruin and destruction, a consequence that was inevitable. This, you see " gentlemen, is the plain simple case, and though it is not our business to enquire at present " into the cause, let us see by what means it operated. When a disease is contract-" ed, it breaks out in the way that is most natural to the constitution; and the same cause " will kill one man with a fever, and another with a confumption. Had this been in some " conflitutions (in a German, for instance) he would have increased his industry, retrenched " his expence, and recovered from the difeafe. Had it been a Turk, he would have drawn a " a fword, cut off a vizier's head, and groaned and died. An African would have murdered " and pillaged every body that came in the way, and at last fallen a sacrifice himself. As this was

^{*} The comparison is certainly fair between a Chart of trade and a skeleton of a man; but the reason for giving it here is, by making a parallel, to familiarize people to the uses of Charts.

OBSER-

"was a descendant of Englishmen, the name of liberty was assumed, and the semblance of private honour was preserved. Every member was deeply in debt, and all men in debt want relief one way or other. The cause of individuals and the state were so much the

" fame, that it was very easy to join unanimously, and they did so; and men who have in vain looked for a cause of complaint on account of government, may find an ample one

" in that of individuals." *

Thus was that destruction to the commerce brough about; and tho' it is not our purpose now to consider how this could have been prevented, nor perhaps was that possible, yet certainly a national inquiry into the affair would have given individuals an opportunity of judging for themselves; which, as it was, they could scarcely be said to have, as they did not

know the general state of the case.

If this reasoning should be wrong in any respect, it will be remembered, that it is intended rather to shew the good effects of attention to these subjects, by comparing it to a case where this fort of reasoning is so much used, and so universally approved; and it has at least a plausibility with it, that tends to familiarize the subject, and to suggest the utility of a strict attention to the amount of our trade to America in suture. Whether the state may think this worth while, or whether individuals may join in attending to it, is a moot point; perhaps two or three more general miscarriages, and two or three hundred more bankruptcies, may enforce this idea, which, however useful it may be in suture, might have certainly been very much so in time past.

* This is not meant to hint, that the Americans, as a nation, had not cause of complaint; but whether they had or not, it is clear, individuals had a sufficient reason for wishing to drop the connection.

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CHART of Experts and Imports to and from SPAIN & the CANARIES from 1700 to 1780

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OBSERVATIONS

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HE trade with Spain, which is confiderably greater fince the last Spanish war than it had before been, is still but small, much more so than it probably would be, were

it not for the unfavourable operation of treaties and alliances.

The Spaniards themselves consume and use the articles that they import from us; but they do not create those things which they export. They are indebted to South America, and to their own good foil and climate for what they posses; for their own industry produces but little. Nature, as if it had intended Spaniards for idleness, has even furnished them with iron that forges without the trouble of heating in the fire; and they, on their part, are the most indolent set of men in the world.

The trade of Spain is not confiderable to any country, nor do they pay much attention to it, except in gold and filver, which, though they may feem to deferve a preference to other branches of commerce, do not fo in reality; for Spain has funk confiderably in the scale of

nations, fince the acquisition of the riches of Mexico and Peru.

Among those nations which, during the increase of the Roman empire, withstood for a time its power, the inhabitants of Spain made a most respectable figure, as a steady, warlike, and hardy people.

The

The same period which brought peace to Spain, under the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, completed the destruction of commerce and manufactures in that country, because it completed the expulsion of the Moors and the Jews; the most industrious, and at that time, when

all arts were nearly loft, the best artists in Europe.

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The succeeding reign of Charles the Fifth, and the great inundation of the precious metals from Mexico and Peru, the treasures of the ancient inca's, all tended to abolish industry, and to confirm those habits of pride and indolence for which the Spaniards have ever since been famous. Had the idea of a nation of gentlemen been capable of existence, it would have been realized in Spain: their gold, their territory, and their disposition, were all in favour of that extravagant notion; but unluckily, one gentleman requires a number of servants, and there the idea ends; for the poor and low will always be the most numerous class in every country.

The riches of South America coming into Europe by the way of Spain, will always occafion a confiderable trade of imports with other countries, to afford a market for the gold, which they exchange for the less precious, but not less useful manufactures and productions of other parts: and except when treaties stand in the way, no nation can supply them so well

with what they want, as England.

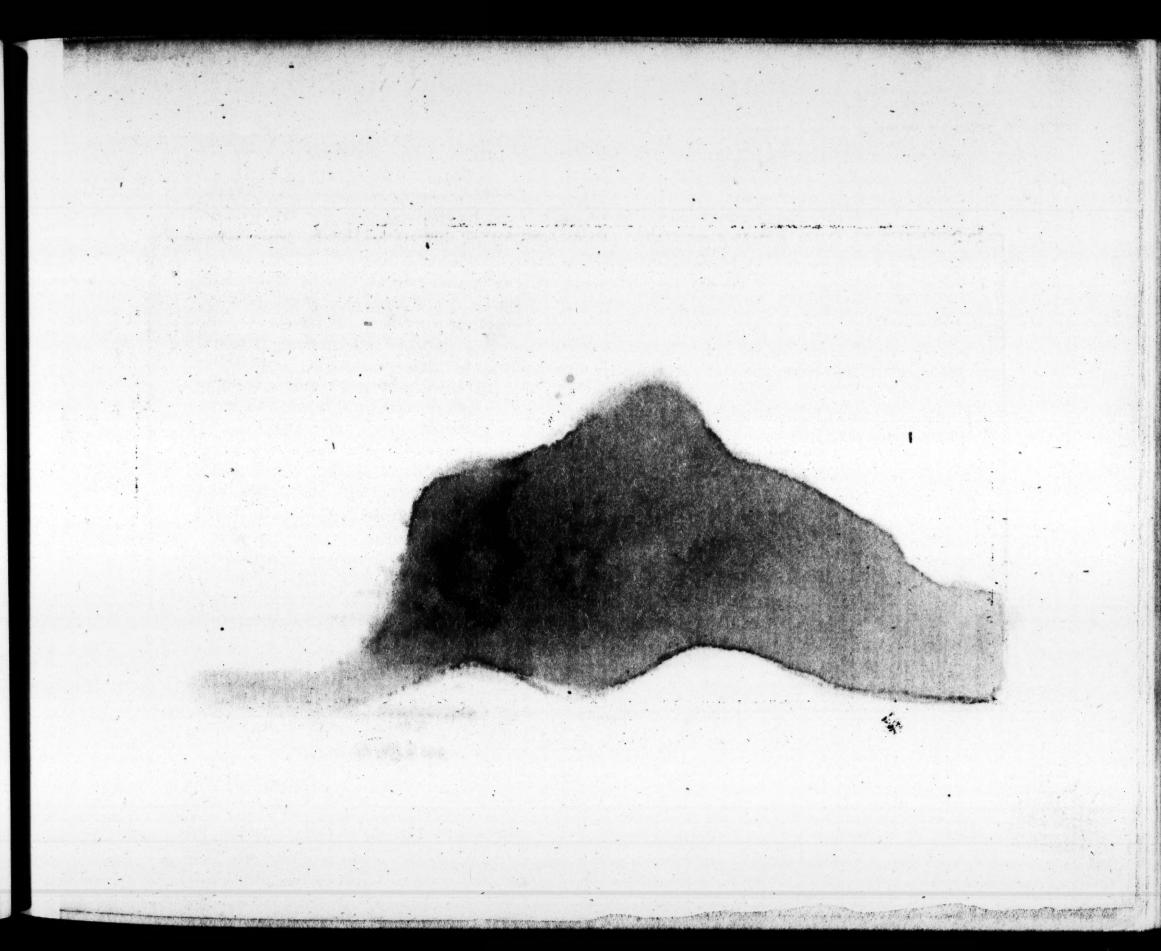
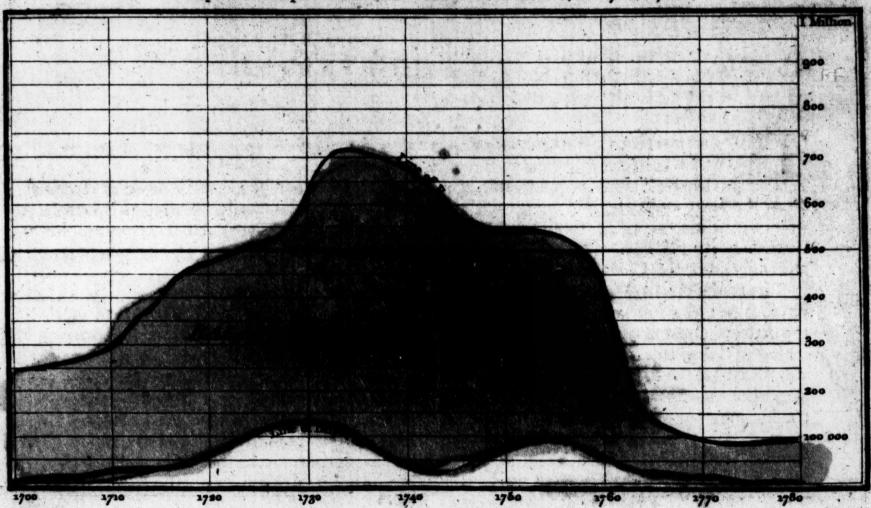


Plate m

Exports and Imports to and from THE STRAIGHTS, from 1700 to 1780.



The Divisions at the Bottom are Years , those on the Right hand £ 100,000 each .

Published as the Act directs, 1. May 1786 by W. Playlair .

Nede soulp? 352, Strand, London.

60 OBSERVATIONS PNT HATRYDEATOTHESTERABHTS.

once, in the eleventh century, upon mens minds, drew most nations of Europe to the Hely Land, in order to example the Landship one content was positived to the Landship weath was positived by their Burbarant, was carried to that part of the world, which grew rich, at the expense of the enthusiation multirude. Venice rote into a rich republic by

that wealth, and let THOLANTS, ATS, AHPTEORE AVAILABE. The fame advantage.
This wealth, added to the enjoyed; and time is necessary to make countries poor, as well as to acquire riches. So that the trade only declined by degrees; and in proportion to the trade

PIE remarks that this branch affords, are very few; unless we were to deviate from the

than the large and extensive ones; and they seem to have frequently, during this century, gone by a different rule; for while the greater branches, with very sew exceptions, have increased, those have frequently been upon the decline. Of the truth of the latter part of

this affertion, the Chart now before us is a proof.

The coasts of the Mediterranean sea were originally the seats of commerce; and for many obvious reasons, until navigation began upon the great and extensive scale, when men crossed the Atlantic, and doubled the Cape of Good Hope, they were the most favourable for commerce in the world. The rich and powerful states were all upon these coasts; and it was the way by which the luxuries of Asia came into Europe. Tho' this ceased to be the case, and that tho' that time was at an end, before the commencement of this period we are now considering, yet were there many vestiges of the ancient wealth, that are gradually wearing away. The civilized part of mankind was upon a very small scale, from the fall of the Roman Empire till the sifteenth century; and while that continued to be the case the places which were best situated, got the greatest share. Religion, and the love of adventure, both operating at

once

60 OBSERVATIONS ON THE TRADE TO THE STRAIGHTS.

once, in the eleventh century, upon mens minds, drew most nations of Europe to the Holy Land, in order to extirpate the Insidels: one consequence of which was, that whatever moveable wealth was possessed by these Barbarians, was carried to that part of the world, which grew rich, at the expence of the enthusiastic multitude. Venice rose into a rich republic by

that wealth, and leffer ports shared, in a smaller degree, the same advantage.

This wealth, added to the fine fituation, completed the advantage that the ports on the Mediterranean had before enjoyed; and time is necessary to make countries poor, as well as to acquire riches. So that the trade only declined by degrees; and in proportion to the trade of the rest of Europe, it still continues to decline. The trade to Italy and Venice, which has been treated separately, and is increasing, may perhaps occasion an unfair conclusion too, for lying so conveniently as it does for an intermediate market. The other business up the Straights may frequently be transacted there; as all mercantile people and states purchase, as well as yend, things that they neither produce nor consume themselves.

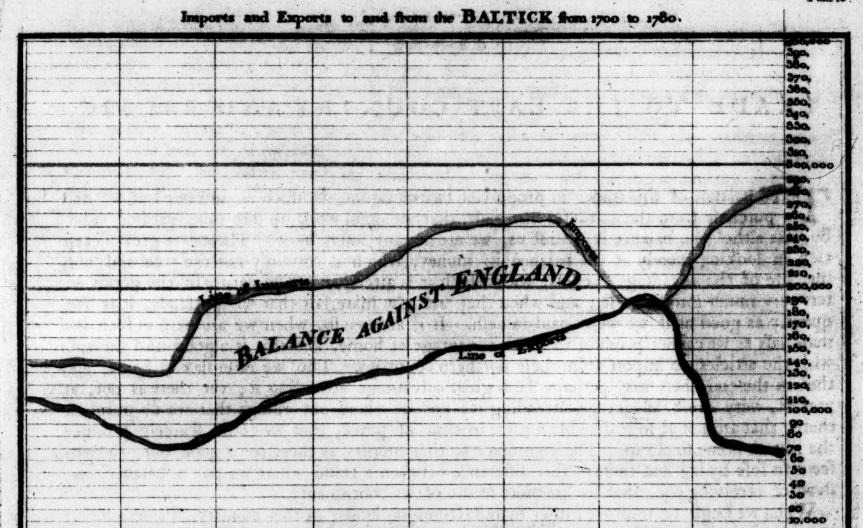
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TRADE TO THE EAST COUNTRY AND BALTIC.

of Least would are that care be lowered, will it's productional became threaten. There are a

THE balance of this trade, in proportion to its amount, is much against us; but we only purchase from thence useful materials, that we again work up into much greater value. So that altho' the balance is against us, we are not any losers by it. There is a great deception in looking merely at the balance in money, which is certainly not the true and only measure of the advantage, or loss, with which it is attended. The nature of the goods enters very much into the case; and when they are raw materials that we purchase, it is frequently as good as if we were paid in cash. It is always so, when we are paid in such raw materials as we cannot produce to much advantage at home, and this is a good deal the case with the articles we import from these northern countries. Tho' we raise flax at home, and tho' in the end there may perhaps be a great advantage attending it; yet there is not, at present, very great advantage attending it; nor are there any things that we do purchase there, that are not at so reasonable a price in time of peace, that we could scarcely produce the like at home so cheap. The commerce to that country is therefore a good one, tho' we seem to lose by it; and there is this difference between a trade where we pay a balance, instead of receiving one, that we are more secure of its continuance.

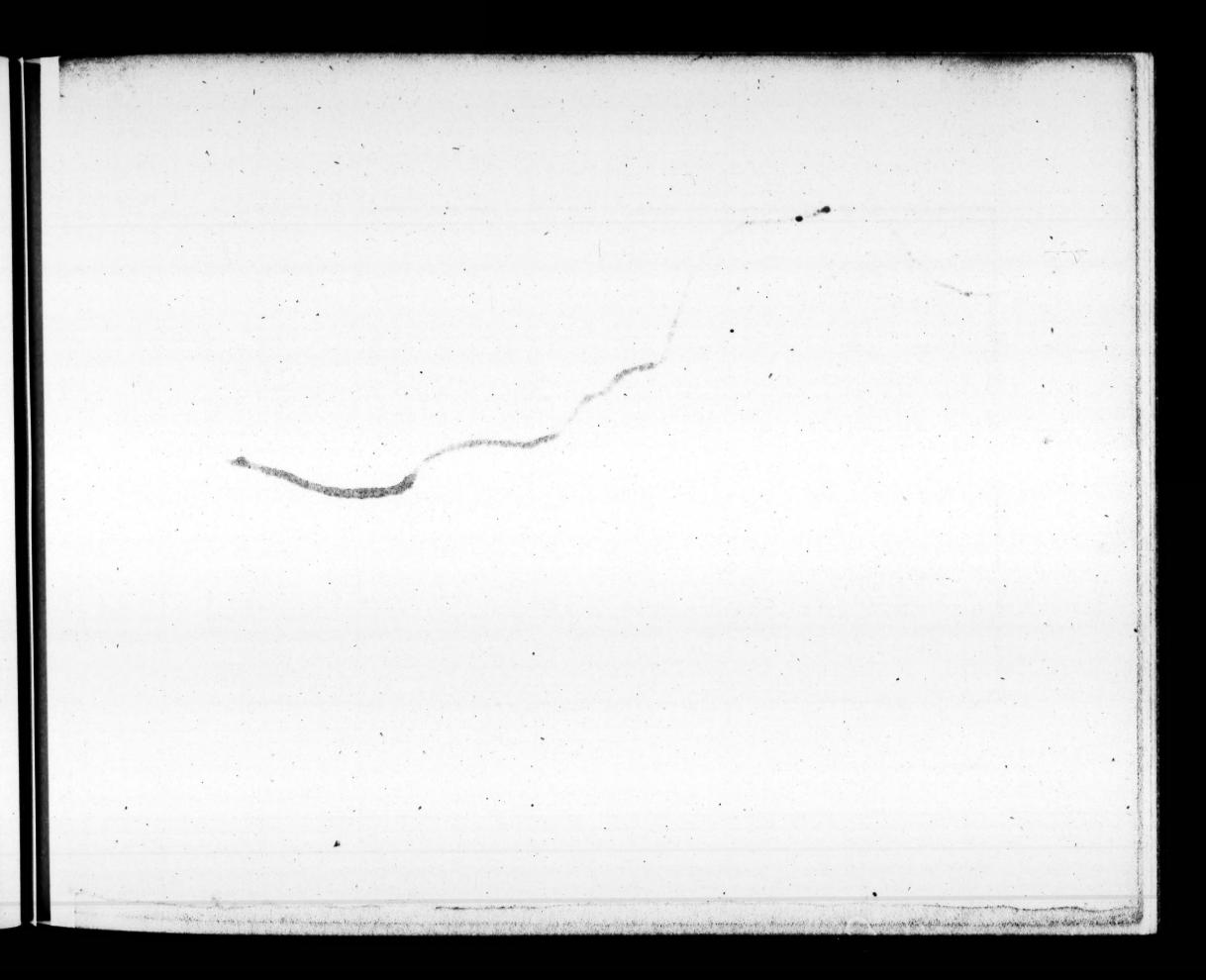
When we begin to improve either manufactures or lands, in this country, we account it certain, that, if we raise or make the articles as cheap as we have hitherto bought, the

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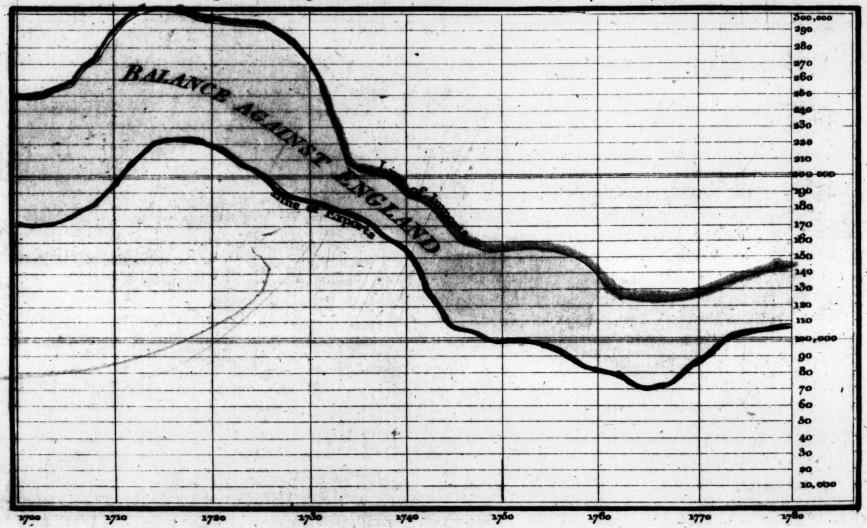
business is sure to do. But it frequently happens, that the people who supplied us before, are able to reduce the article in price, rather than be underfold; and it is not unlikely, that this is the case with those parts. In that event, to be sure, we gain a point of importance, reducing the price; but it is not the point for which we wished. This is more likely, by much, to be the case with the productions of land than with manufactures; for the produce of ground (particularly in fine rich countries) admits of a greater reduction; as the rent of land would in that case be lowered, 'till its productions became saleable. There are a great many attending circumstances upon which this depends. In case corn and grass can he raised on these lands to advantage, or if safe can be got elsewhere for flax, it will not be reduced upon our raising flax at home. If, on the contrary, the grounds will not turn to advantage into corn or grafs, then shall we have the price of flax and hemp reduced, fill it vantage, employ our ground to other purpofes! The state of the state o ters very much into the case; and when they are taw materials that we punchase quently as good as if we were paid in coth. It is always to, when we are paid in fuch new materials as we cannot produce to much advantage as home, and this is a good deal the cafe with the articles we import from these northern countries. The we take that at heart and the at the end there may perhaps be a great advantage attending it; yet there is not, at present, very great advantage attending it; nor are there any things that we do purchase there, that are not at fo reasonable a price in time of peace, that we could scarcely produce the bike at home so cheep. The commerce to that country is therefore a good one, and the contract to loss by it; and there is this difference between a trade where we pay a balance, in-

flead of receiving one, that we are more feoure of its continuance.

VI hen we begin to improve either manufactures or lands, in this country, we account it estain, that, if we take or make the articles as these as we have hitherto bought, the



Exports and Imports to and from TURKEY from 1700 to 1780.



The Divisions at the Bottom are Years, those on the Right hand £ 100,000 each.

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TRADE TO TURKEY.

ONE of the finest and the fairest portions of Europe, where arts, science, and literature, once slourished in a high degree, is now possessed by the most ignorant, indosent, and debased race of men that ever incumbered the face of the globe: and the same spot which was famous for giving birth to the first of orators, poets, and philosophers, is now silled with a wretched and contemptible set of mortals, who groan under one of the most miserable, despotic, yet seeble governments that ever had existence*.

The situation of Constantinople, the capital of Turkey, chosen by a Roman Emperor as the finest in the empire; is also one of the finest in the world. Its situation for trade was unexceptionable, and its buildings were the most magnificent; the surrounding country

* Among the various accounts of the present state of Turkey, none is more deserving attention than that of Baron de Tott, lately published at Paris.

t Constantine may be supposed to have been well acquainted with the Roman Empire, for ever from his assuming the imperial purple at York, he was employed in watching over and traversing the different parts of the Empire; nor did he ever fix to any settled abode, 'till he raised upon the ancient Byzantium this new city for his residence, and a rival to Rome.

abounded in every thing that the most fertile soil or grateful climate could produce. Yet the nature of the government, and inhabitants of the country, which sometimes produce a garden upon a rock, have here reversed the case, and turned a most noble country into one, poor and

despicable.

When the hand of gothic and of savage barbarity extinguished throughout Europe the flame of ancient learning and the arts, a single spark was left unextinguished in Constantinople, which had not quite perished, when once more the dawn of light arose; so that this place became a sort of feeble link between the ancient and the present world: and some arts were preserved, which are peculiar to that seat of ignorance, even to this day; particularly those of dying some colours, which were preserved there; and being of a nature easily to be

kept a fecret, have never either been with success discovered or imitated.

Pride and meanness are blended in the characters of the worshippers of Mahomet, in a peculiar degree. Tho' they submit to be slaves, yet they think it below their dignity to follow commerce in the usual way; and other European nations are obliged to go to them for those articles, which an industrious and mercantile nation would send out at their own risk, and in their own ships: so that they understand little of naval affairs, and their commerce is much less than it would otherwise be. To what particular circumstances it is owing that their commerce declines, may not be easily accounted for, with any degree of certainty; but it is probable that it may be with justice attributed to our rivalling them in those arts in which they originally excelled so much, and still do excell other nations; for we use more fine carpets and Turkey leather than at any former time; but many are imitations of our own manufacture. Some fine cotton stuffs, of an excellent dye, are also imported from thence; some of the produce of the ground, but not many of their manufactures.

PLATE XI. ALL NORTH AMERICA. PLATE XII. SPAIN AND CANARIFS.

| Years. | Exports. | Imports. | Years. Exports. Imports |
|--------|-----------|-----------|-------------------------|
| 1700, | 200,000 | 280,000 | 1700, 220,000 225,00 |
| 1710, | 250,000 | 370,000 | 1710, 320,000 280,00 |
| 1720, | 350,000 | 520,000 | 1720, 565,000 420,00 |
| 1730, | 500,000 | 630,000 | 1730, 650,000 480,00 |
| 1740, | 620,000 | 780,000 | 1740, 450,000 190,000 |
| 1750, | 930,000 | 820,000 | 1750, 400,000 90,000 |
| 1760, | 1,750,000 | 950,000 | 1760, 1,150,000 525,000 |
| 1770, | 4,550,000 | 1,480,000 | 1770, 1,040,000 510,000 |
| 1780, | 1,805,000 | 300,000 | 1780, 860,000 440,000 |

PLATE XIII. STRAIGHTS,

Years. Exports. Imports. 1700, 250,000 2,000 . 1710, 300,000 25,000 1720, 475,000 70,000 625,000 1730, 135,000 1740, 675,000 40,000 535,000 80,000 1750, 1760, 425,000 60,000 1770, 90,000 20,000 1780, 85,000 3,00

PLATE XIV. BALTIC AND THE EAST COUNTRY.

| Years. | Exports. | Imports. |
|--------|----------|----------|
| 1700, | 110,000 | 136,000 |
| 1710, | 85,000 | 130,000 |
| 1720, | 86,000 | 188,000 |
| 1730, | 118,000 | 198,000 |
| 1740, | 133,000 | 230,000 |
| 1750, | 154,000 | 250,000 |
| 1760, | 175,000 | 210,000 |
| 1770, | 135,000 | 220,000 |
| 1780, | 70,000 | 280,000 |

CONTENTS OF THE PLATES IN FIGURES.

FRATE XV. TURKEY. TO AMERICA HTROM LIA HX START

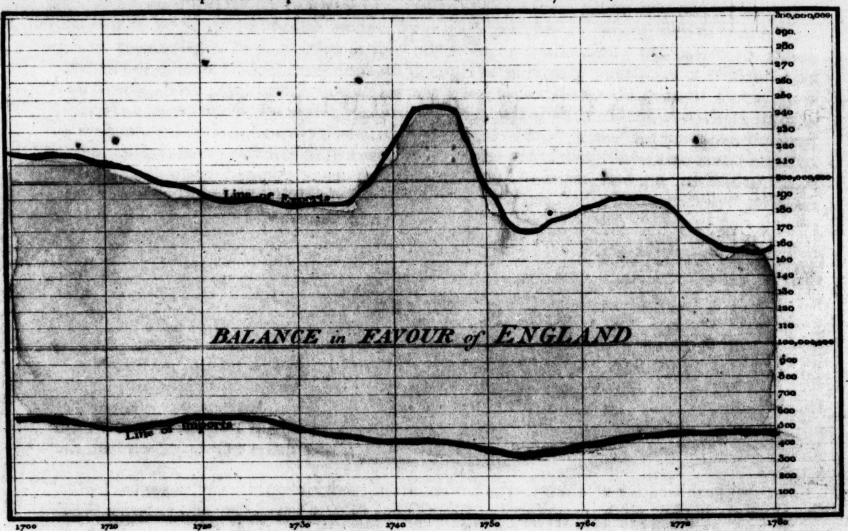
| Years. Exports. Imports. | a. Importa | |
|--------------------------|--|------------------------------|
| 1700, 170,000 250,000 | | Yests. Export |
| 1710, 195,000 287,000 | | 1700, 200,00 1710, 250,00 |
| 1720, 220,000 295,000 | | 350,00 |
| 1730, 185,000 270,000 | | 1730, 500,00 |
| 1740, 01 155,000 187,000 | | 1740, 620,00 |
| 1750, 100,000 155,000 | 그런 그 가게 되는 것이 없는 것이 되는 점점 하면 하고 있다. 그런 | 1740, 1930,00 |
| 1760, 83,000 137,000 | | 1760, 1,750,00 |
| 1770, 89,000 126,000 | 그 부분이 있는 경험을 보는 것이 하면 하다가 되었다. 그리는 사람들이 되었다면 하는 사람들이 되었다면 하는 사람들이 되었다면 하는데 | 1770, 4,550,00 |
| 1780, 109,000 142,000 | 300,000 | 1780, 1,806,00 |

PLATE XIII. SVIR ATGITTS. TEAL NIV. BARTIC AND THE EAST

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Exports and Imports to and from HOLLAND from 1700 to 1780.



The Bottom line is divided into Years, the Right hand line into £100,000 each.

Published as the Act directs, 1st May 1786, by W. Playlair.

Neds souls! 352, Strand, London

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TRADE WITH HOLLAND.

THE Republic of Holland possessed at one time, the greatest part of the trade of Europe: their sisheries occupied the coasts, and their merchant-vessels the ocean. They were the venders of riches, and the carriers of goods to the rest of the world; and nothing that would bring a price, from a herring to a whale, was considered as below their attention, or above their reach. With a most astonishing degree of industry and perseverance, they raised an inconsiderable subordinate province to the rank of one of the most powerful States in Europe; and they shewed, that industry is rather the child of necessity than of opportunity. Upon the coast of the Mediteranean sea, a number of sishermen raised up from a sea-weed bank, the elegant, the rich, and powerful Republic of Venice; which for a time engrossed the carrying-trade of Europe; 'till another set of men, upon another swampy marsh, in a situation less savourable indeed, but with an indefatigable obstinacy of disposition, which, when impelled by necessity, is almost equal to any purpose, wrested from Venice the superiority in trade, and Amsterdam became the first commercial city in the world.

The changeable nature of things, which often in one moment raises States, as well as individuals, to the highest pitch of prosperity, likewise sinks them into a low and indigent situation.

tion. Other nations now have opened their eyes to the advantages of commerce; and tho' they cannot all aspire to become carriers for others, yet they in general wish to become carriers for themselves. In proportion as this takes place, it is evident, the extent of Dutch trade and of Dutch consequence must decline. The internal manufactures of Holland, tho' considerable, have never been its chief support; and as for the productions of a country so limited in extent, and well peopled, they never have supplied itself; so that it has been literally a store-house and nation of carriers, and consequently, its wealth cannot be very stable, but must exist by the indolence or want of skill of other nations, and must fall by their exertion and industry.

The Dutch have, however much they want territory at home, had the address to secure some very valuable ones abroad, and they derive much advantage from the exclusive possession

of the Spice-Islands in the East Indies.

The trade between this country and Holland is rather less than it has been, partly perhaps, because the general amount of the trade of the States is diminishing; and partly, because we carry our own manufactures directly to the place where they are to be consumed. As the Dutch always buy at the best market, and as they have the wisdom to overlook any disagreement where their interest is concerned, we shall always be sure of supplying them with those articles which they can buy to better advantage here than elsewhere. This is pretty certain, for no laws, human or divine, nor the most strict treaty, will make a Dutchman buy at a dear market, when he knows where to buy at a cheap one. In Asia, the Dutch trample, for interest, upon their religion, and in Europe, upon the laws of nations*; tho they are exceeding honest and punctual in payments; and as they take very short credit, it is a most beneficial branch of our commerce.

What-

^{*} The double part afted by the Dutch during the American war, must yet be remembered by every one.

Whatever it may be owing to, it is a certain fact, that the Dutch are the best fitted for mercantile business of any people in the world. Their passions are all subservient to the love of gain. Enabled by this, and impelled by necessity, they have certainly done wonders; for besides that the land is insufficient in extent to supply the inhabitants, the expence of fortifying it from the sea, as well as that of rescuing it from the dominion of Spain, have loaded them with heavier taxes than any other nation. The powers of getting money were fully called forth by nature and circumstances in Holland, and they have exerted them to the very utmost hitherto; tho' undoubtedly, that energy by which they were once enabled to succeed so well, must leave them. Their unanimity is already gone, and their frugality diminishes: so that in time they probaby will be reduced to that rank among nations, to which they are only entitled by numbers, by territory, and by wealth. It is unnecessary to endeavour to enumerate the articles of Dutch imports and exports, for they deal in every article that is known as a branch of trade.

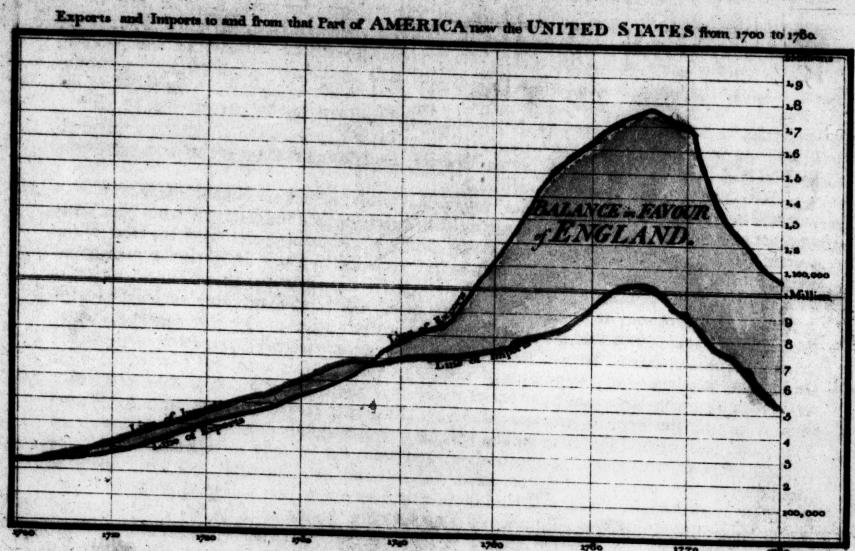
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Plate 17.



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TRADE TO THE UNITED STATES.

The Friday of the World has furnified few inflated of fo great a tirel of country and

I JNDER the general trade of North America, everything that occurs as being deserving of remark, has already been noticed.

dereigning a change, from an unerdiffered and barbacous, to a conflict fixed fixes; and it with me

It will undoubtedly be observed that this trade is similar in shape, and not much inferior in extent, to that of the whole Continent. It is to be presumed that the goods which our merchants were so generous as to send over there, were pretty equally distributed over the face of the country; and that as there were too many to be purchased by the rich, even the poor coun-

tries had a competent share.

The United States are loaded now with very heavy taxes, and they are not bleffed with that unanimity that gives the power of supporting great burthens. They will be the longer before they arise to that affluence and ease, which they exchanged for what it has pleased them to call Liberty. But the pressure of necessity, when there is a real power of exertion, is the best thing that can happen to an infant state: it is the bending of the bow, that gives it force to project the arrow. America has every thing necessary for the rise of a great and a powerful nation; and the time will be necessary to give stability to their acts, or unanimity to their councils, yet that time approaches; and whatever we may be inclined to think, or pleased to say, the eyes of Europe are fixed with attention on America. Nations consider it as a rising sun, and individuals as a land of plenty; not abounding indeed in gold and silver, but in the necessaries, and the luxuries of a country life, which are a species of wealth more useful and less precarious than the other.

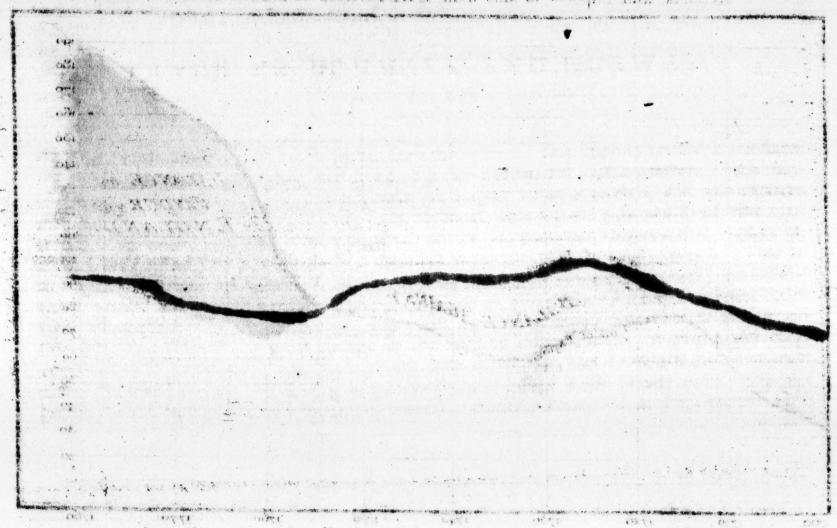
No man, who fets down and confiders that only four years of peace and independence have yet succeeded to a long and a ruinous internal war, attended with the joint evils of a foreign invasion, and a civil broil, will think, that perfect harmony could, in this short period, be restored; or could draw a conclusion, that because they are not yet recovered from their calamity, that they never will.

The History of the World has furnished few instances of so great a tract of country undergoing a change, from an uncultivated and barbarous, to a civilized state; and it will well merit the attention of mankind to observe the different steps, and the progress, upon so large

a scale.

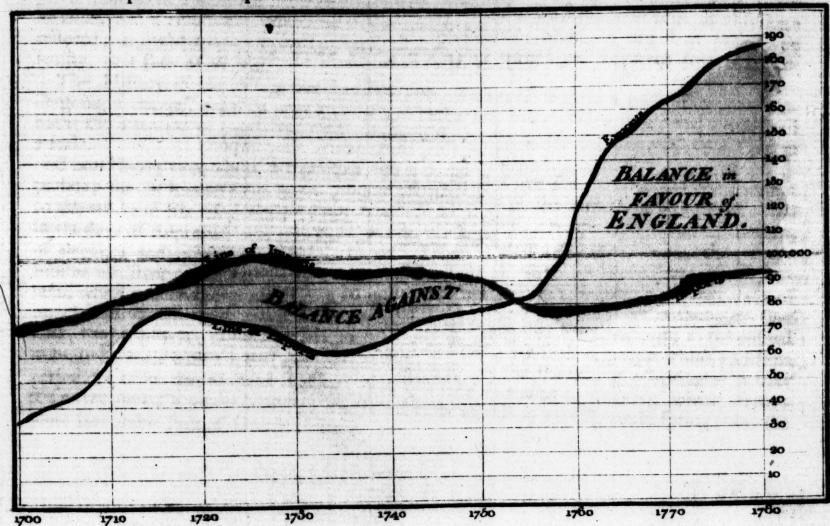
There feems to be fome strange enlivening vapor in a new soil, that an old one does not posses; for the human mind is degenerated in those parts of the world which once gave laws to the rest, and has risen vigorous and fresh, in places which were then insignificant. Britain, in the days of Augustus, was peopled with painted Barbarians; and even France, the pattern of elegance and urbanity, was once filled with fierce savages. In later times, Russia exhibited the same appearance; yet who so active in improvement as they? In that state of men, when endeavouring to rival their neighbours, there seems a fort of enthusiasm that impels individuals, and invigorates the State. The nation that has already got to the desired rank, begins to relax the exertion and to enjoy its fruits; while those people whose ancestors were great, look with a sullen and inactive contempt on the flourishing offspring of a later period. Europe has realized this idea, and it is now extended to America, where, from a few adventurers, a power is rising, that it would be in vain to expect, could spring from the more favourable soils of Greece or Italy.

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TRADE TO DENMARK AND NORWAY.

THIS trade has changed much within these thirty years. Our imports are much the same in amount with what they used to be, but our exports are much greater. This may be owing to the nature of the articles, what we import being materials, and our exports manufactured goods; for it is generally to be observed, that a trade that consists of raw materials or unfinished produce, is more regularly of the same amount than one that consists of articles in a finished state; particularly if these last are articles of luxury and expence. That is much the case with this branch of our trade, what we export there being chiefly manufactured goods, and our imports from thence consisting of raw materials; for we import little from thence that is in a consumeable state. The amount of trade altogether is so inconsiderable, that without any great change in the state of either country, it might vary very considerably in its amount; nor can it be any cause of wonder, that Denmark should import ninety thousand pounds worth of goods annually, more than it did twenty years ago; especially when we consider how much our manufactures have improved during that period.*

^{*} The revenues of Denmark have confiderably more than doubled fince the year 1630; so the country probably is getting richer very rapidly.

Manufactures flourish inconsiderably in Denmark. The rude art of producing in a saleable state, tallow, hides, pitch, and tar, with the more difficult but well known art of making ron, sums up nearly the ingenuity of that country; and these articles, with timber (chiefly r) compose the exports to other parts.

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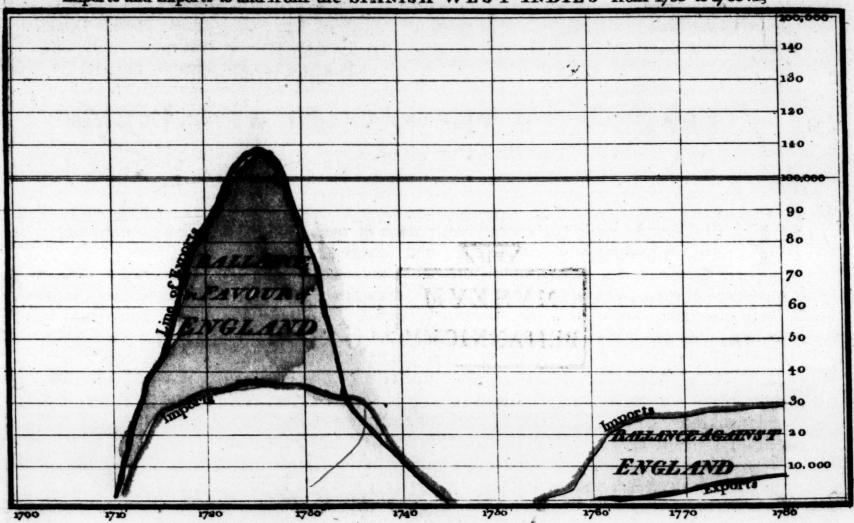
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TRADE WITH THE SPANISH WEST INDIES.

HIS feems the most variable of any branch of trade that has yet come under our con-

Mere there not some mutual advantage, and a very considerable one, the amount would not have been so great some years; neither, unless other circumstances took place besides the direct trading interest, would it sometimes entirely cease. The fact certainly is, that there is no great nation, nor inconsiderable body of men, who do not wish to trade with England. Those who cannot pay ready money, can get that length of credit here which they could get no where else; and those who have money, can lay it out to more advantage here than in any other place. A cheap market is always the object of the latter, and long credit of the former; and mankind is composed, almost entirely, of these two classes; and therefore England is, for certain articles, either directly or indirectly, the manufacturer and store-house of all nations. And it probably is owing to this cause, that in favourable moments, the trade with the Spanish West Indies rose, suddenly disappeared, and rose again, according to opportunity,

which will be the natural case with any branch of trade that is beneficial in itself, but forbidden by the laws and commercial regulations. It is advantageous, in many different respects, for a nation to monopolize the carrying-trade of her own colonies, and even the indolent Spaniards are ambitious of that advantage: but their flow habits, and little turn for commerce, prevent them from doing it effectually.

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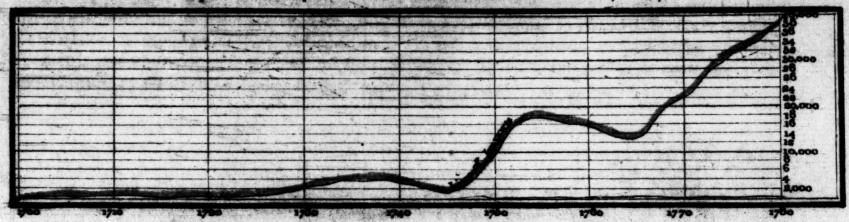
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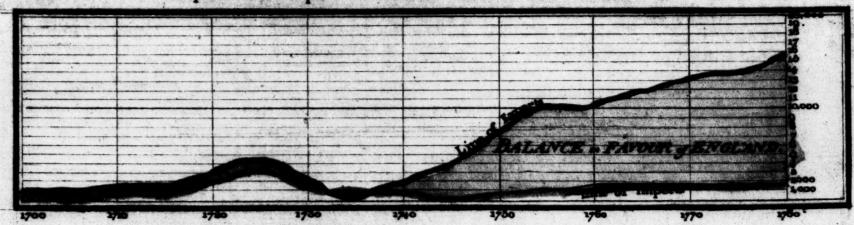
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Exports and Imports to and from GREENLAND from 1700 to 1780.



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Exports and Imports to and from BERMUDA from 1700 to 1780.



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GREENLAND TRADE.

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HIS branch of our trade, which confifts of fishing (chiefly for whales) is one, under circumstances peculiar to itself, and widely differing from those others on which we

have been bestowing our attention.

In the division that takes place between mercantile and manufacturing business, fishing takes its place under that of the latter: it is the production of manual labour, and not the transferring of property. If goods are carried from Surinam or Japan, their value is but increased by change of place or change of possessor; but when a fish is brought from the bottom of the ocean, its value, whatever it may be, is created; for no man would give a farthing for a fish, even if it were a whale, while it is at large in the ocean. The chance of being able to catch the fish is indeed of some value; but that is not the value of the fish, which depends entirely on its being caught. It may appear that paying rent for a fishery, (of salmon for instance) is giving money for the fish that are in the water; but it is not so in any degree; it is only giving money for the chance of catching the fish. If the privilege of fishing on a certain spot belongs to an individual; or in other words, if the laws of the

country give an individual a right to all the fish that are caught on that spot, then may that right, like any other, be let or sold, and the value of the fish is increased by that price, in the same manner as the price of corn is increased by the rent of land. Nobody however would venture to say, that the farmer who rented an estate, paid the landlord for the corn that was to grow upon it; he would only say, that he bargained for leave to cultivate the ground for his own advantage.

When there is no rent paid, the value of the fish consists altogether, in the labour and expence of catching; and the effects, in a commercial view, are the same as if a number of men

created the fish out of nothing, or out of water, by the work of their hands.

Salt is univerfally faid to be manufactured, tho' the manner of procuring it is of the same nature with sishing, and indeed, is performed in a manner not very unlike that in which some Savages catch sish; and tho' our process of making salt is, in its practice, not very like that of sishing, in principle they are exactly the same. The operation is, to separate the minute particles of salt, which sloat in water, from the water itself. To do this, the water and salt are both put in a pan, and the water is evaporated by fire, leaving the salt behind. To separate small sishes from water, they are both put in a net-bag, and the water runs off through holes that are too minute to admit the sish to pass, which are therefore left behind. So there is in reality a greater similarity between making salt and catching small sishes, than there is between the sishing for oysters and for whales.*

It

^{*} A gentleman who went lately to the Crimea, and returned in the year 1784, gave the following account of the manner in which falt is made there by nature. There are falt lakes which fill in winter and spring, but begin to dry in summer, and in about three months become all dry but a little in the middle. The borders are left

It may seem unnecessary to prove that fishing is a manufacture, or (not to offend language) of the nature of a manufacture; but it is of high importance, that it should be generally known to be so; for manufactures, in point of doing good to a country, hold a much higher rank than merchandize, and are generally understood to do so. The existence too, of this branch of sishery depends more upon public support and opinion, than many others; and it is one of the most beneficial: therefore, whatever can tend to raising its consequence in a

public view, is not only useful but necessary.

The most magnificent structures that art and labour have produced, which float upon the surface of the ocean, owe their original to the desire that pervades equally the Savage Barbarian, and the most luxurious Prince, from the rude Hottentot to the most sensual Apicius, that of catching or of eating sish. When that art was sirst discovered, neither philosophy nor public spectacle had attained the pitch which is necessary to induce a few individuals of the present age to venture in a new element; real necessary, or sensual appetite, were alone motives sufficient to tempt the unambitious natives of the dry land to venture upon the water: and inconsiderable as the portion of our present naval skill required for sishing may be, yet without the assistance derived from that art, we cannot trace the different steps by which we arrived at the present excellence in naval assists. It has often been assisted, that sisheries are necessary to maintain the strength and dignity of the British Navy, and it is unfortunate that it is not more universally believed.

Ex-

left covered with falt, and the deeper they go, the thicker is the coat of falt that covers the bottom; and in the middle are found those few fishes which were in the water in winter. So that nature makes falt and catches fish by the same operation; and it is certainly more natural to catch small fishes as they make salt, by evaporation, than it would be to strike an oyster as they do a whale, with a gun-harpoon.

Except agriculture and fishing, the far greater number of the arts of peace tend to the essiminacy of the human frame. The other arts are inimical to that robust body, and hardy mind, which will always be necessary to the welfare of a State, while the nations settle their disputes by force; and of these two, sishing and agriculture, the former is the most immediately serviceable to our strength in time of war; for in addition to strength of body and habits of life, it adds a degree of skill that is capable of being soon made sufficient for the service of this country. Of all the different branches of the sishery business, that carried on in the North Seas for whales is perhaps the best for a nursery of seamen, and gives them a greater degree of health and strength, than perhaps any other trade. The cold pure air, and the ease they enjoy on board vessels that are pretty large and commodiques, all together, make the men remarkably vigorous and healthy.

Besides the real advantage the fishery gives, in raising men for the service in time of war, it affords a relative advantage also, by preventing the Dutch, and other nations, from having a greater number of sishermen than they at present have; for were it not for our rivalling the Dutch in sisheries in times of peace, we should not be able to rival them in sighting in times of war. Advantageous as this business is in all these respects, in a strictly commercial sense it has not answered well yet; for it has never paid merely of itself, but has been supported by a bounty from Government, than which nothing was ever more wise. Could that

bounty be increased so as to double the trade, it would be still better than it is.

At this time, when public expence has reached an unparalleled height, and it has become the manner of the times to profess economy, and to practise profusion, the improvements of the day have extended to the reduction of this very wise bounty; and the elocution of those who did, and of those who did not understand the subject, has been displayed upon

The

that important matter. The most economical affirmed, that it would save as much annually as would build an insignificant frigate of twenty guns; and they hoped and believed, the general interests of the navy would not suffer; those again who were not so desirous of blinding their country, or so indifferent to its real interest, maintained on the contrary, and with a considerable degree of plausibility, that the economy that risked so great a stake and saved a paltry sum, was false economy; that it was unnecessary, and that it was dangerous. With men unheated by dispute, or unbiassed by party, it is scarcely necessary to prove so evident and so well known a truth. An investigation into the proper objects for bounties will make it appear in a clear light.

It is very true that the public support ought to be given to businesses with caution, and that its being necessary is rather to be considered as an unfavourable circumstance. There is a marked distinction between businesses that are of a nature to warrant bounties, and those

that are not

When public good is to be the refult of the fuccess of a business carried on by individuals,

it may be wife to give it a conftant public support.

When it appears that a manufacture would be a thriving one, if fairly introduced, but that it cannot be introduced unless it meets with public support at first, then it is wise and politic to give it a temporary but not a constant affishance.

. When a manufacture is such as to require a constant bounty, but that no public advantage can ever be expected from it, no public encouragement should in that case be given. A few

instances will make this more plain.

The growing of oranges in this country would be attended with no public advantage, and it could not be done extensively without public support; therefore it ought not to be encouraged by the public.

The growing of flax will be advantageous to the country, and will thrive when once fairly

introduced; therefore it has two claims to a temporary encouragement.

The fisheries deserve encouragement on a greater number of claims than any other thing whatever; they will in the end be as productive of private wealth as they always have been, and will be productive of public strength, and national respectability.

All those things that make a nation richer, stronger, or more happy; or that tend to exalt

national character, but that will not pay individuals, deserve public encouragement.

Learning and the fine arts exalt national character, and increase happiness; therefore, they have by great and wise monarchs generally been considered as proper objects for patronage; for without they were at first taken by the hand, they would not pay the individuals, and therefore they would not exist; for it is an axiom, that what will not pay, will never exist in any extensive degree; every thing must either pay or be paid.

The vessels that are used for the Greenland fishery are of a larger size than coasting vessels, and it employs many vessels that would otherwise be useless at the end of a war; by

which means a confiderable loss is prevented.

The business is a very precarious, rather than an unprofitable one, for it pays very highly some years; but as the time in which the business is generally done, or lost, for the season, is but a few weeks (for before and after the time that the main body of the whales pass, there is but little done) it is not expected to be very uniformly equal.

It appears from this Chart that the trade increases; but the real amount of business done is certainly considerably above what it is here stated to be, for this is not one of the articles

that attracts much the minute attention of the custom-house officers.

With regard to the small trade to Bermuda, no observations occur.

CON

PLATE XVI. HOLLAND. PLATE XVII. THE UNITED STATES.

| Years.qui Exports. Imports. | Years. Exports. | Imports. |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|----------|
| 1700, 2,150,000 570,000 | 1700, 240,000 | 238,000 |
| 1710, 2,100,000 : 510,000 | 1710, 280,000 | 310,000 |
| 1720, 1,920,000 590,000 | 1720, 410,000 | 450,000 |
| 1730, 1,840,000 510,000 | 1730, 540,000 | 590,000 |
| 1740, 2,200,000 420,000 | 1749, 760,000 | 700,000 |
| 1750, 1,930,000 370,000 | 1750, 1,110,000 | 760,000 |
| 1760, 1,810,000 400,000 | 1760, 1,610,000 | 940,000 |
| 1770, 1,780,000 480,000 | 1770, 1,660,000 | 900,000 |
| 1780, 1,570,000 490,000 | 1780, 1,050,000 | 540,000 |

PLATE XVIII. DENMARK & NORWAY. PLATE XIX, SPANISH WEST INDIES.

| Years. | Exports. | Imports. | Years. | Exports. | Imports. |
|--------|----------|----------|--------|----------|----------|
| 1700, | 35,000 | 70,000 | 1700, | <u> </u> | |
| 1710, | 59,000 | 81,000 | 1710, | | |
| 1720, | 76,000 | 96,000 . | 1720, | 84,000 | 34,000 |
| 1730 | 65,000 | 97,000 | 1730, | 83,000 | 37,000 |
| 1740, | 67,000 | 93,000 | 1740, | 11,000 | 12,000 |
| 1750, | 79,000 | 90,000 | 1750, | | |
| 1760, | 115,000 | 79,000 | 1760, | 1,000 | 13,000 |
| 1770, | 163,000 | 85,000 | 1770 | 3,000 | 26,000 |
| 1780, | 185,000 | 93,000 | 1780, | 7,000 | 28,000 |

CONTENTS OF THE PLATES IN FIGURES.

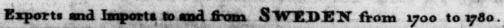
PLATE XX. GREEN LAND. PLATE XXI. BERMUDA.

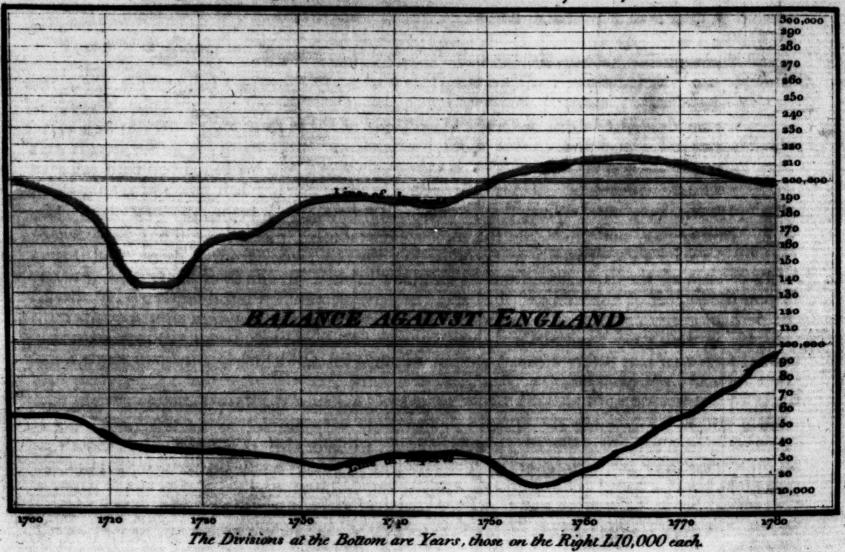
| Years. Exports. Imports. | Years TExports Imports. | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|--|--|
| 17669.888 | 1700; (7) 600 (7) \$ goo | | |
| 17169,018 | 1710, 1,666 01/2 600 | | |
| 1726, 034 100 014 200 | 1720, 002 3,600 01 1,900 | | |
| 1736, 002 36 00 2,000 | 1730, 2,266 1 1,500 | | |
| 1746,007 -000 0 2,800 | 1740, 1,300 05 2 800 | | |
| 1750, 200 10,000 | 1730, 7,200 7,200 | | |
| 1766; CO 336 C 16,066 1 | 1760, 004 10,000 018,1 1,800 | | |
| | 1770, 13,000 37,1 1,700 | | |
| 1786, 176 20 38,000 | 17809 00 15,000 00 1 1,700 1 | | |

PLATE XVIII. DENMARK & NONWAY. PLATE NIK. SPANISH WEST INDIES.

| Imports | ·Experts. | Years | | Imports. | Exports | Yers. |
|-------------------|---|----------|-------|------------|------------|-----------|
| · | Pro- Commentation of the | 1700, | | 70,000 | 000, 2 | 1700, |
| The second second | And with a deposit of | COLULY ! | | 600,18 | 40:000 | ,GITI |
| 34,000. | 000,48 | . 1720 | | 000,60 | .000,07 | 1020. |
| 37,000 | 000,88 | .0871 | | 000,00 | 00130 | OBS ER- |
| 12,000 | 11,000 | 1940, | | 700.80 | 000,73 | TAGE CACO |
| | Marine Company and | 1750, | | 000,00 | 72,000 | 1750, |
| 000,61 | cco,t | 1700, | No. 1 | 000,00 | 000,211 | 1760, |
| 20,000 | . + 9,000 %. | .0101 | | 8,,000 | 0.00,801 | 1970, |
| 000,83 | 7,000 | 1,082 | 77 | : 1 93,000 | , coc 581. | 1780, |

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with Lecter supplied than with sive once the quantity from any other market. It is to be observed, that they are all encertain, when they purchase or, what profesion up, it is to

to less out on a leage flock, buy the kind of the for new chance number. Now the Swedich inter as exactly this; for with a few best of the woll choice, a poor occupacy black-finish

ferve, and therefore the A T A B W S HTH Will A A T of the probable purposes. This is well worth the avenuen of incomments, for it is furprising how much demand it.

ways her been occasioned by that high divisions and the knife is not the edge-tool that

hemp, flax, and pitch, are the most considerable in importance. The iron of Sweden is sold in a state more generally marketable than any other iron, from its shape, and the variety of sizes of the bars; and from its excellent quality, it also is of more general utility. Upon the subject of the iron and steel trade in general, the best information extant, in this, or perhaps in any country, is to be found in Lord Shessield's Observations on Trade and Commerce; in which his Lordship has given some excellent general reasoning, and many very useful facts that had before escaped the eye of observation, which are there united in a very striking and eminent degree.

His Lordship distinguishes with great propriety, between the duty on imported iron, and duties on other raw materials, which in general are very hurtful to manufactures; but on account of this being a manufacture that promises to succeed in this country in a very high degree, that duty on the foreign article serves as a premium on the home manufacture.

Of the iron imported in quantities into this country, the afforted Swedish is by far the best, as well as most convenient for use; and people in the iron trade should attend to this circumstance. A considerable part of the iron (excepting for shipping and foreign manufactures)

is used by men who are in a very small way of business in country towns, who having no money to lay out on a large stock, buy the kind that will do for any chance purpose. Now the Swedish iron is exactly this; for with a few bars of that, well chosen, a poor country black-smith will be better supplied than with five times the quantity from any other market. It is to be observed, that they are all uncertain, when they purchase it, what particular use it is to serve, and therefore they must have the kind that will do for any of the probable purposes. This is well worth the attention of iron-masters, for it is surprising how much demand always has been occasioned by that single circumstance. The knife is not the edge-tool that artists prefer in doing real business; nor is it used by joiners, cabinet-makers, carvers, or other workers in wood; yet if any man were consined to the use of one small edge-tool, he would chuse a knife as being the most likely to apply to any of those purposes that chance might throw in the way; and knives out-number, ten to one, any other edge-tool. There is certainly a great similarity between the reasons for the universal use of this tool, and the general demand for Swedish iron, which is known by the name of assorted, for it is the only iron from which a jobbing black-simith can chuse an affortment.

It may be likely that home-made iron will supply the place of Russia iron sirst, as that is not equal in quality to Swedish; for from the nature of any new art, it is easier to rival the least perfect first; and a reduction of price is more eagerly grasped at by the manufacturers who use the coarse, than those who use the fine material, because the quantity and value of it generally bears a greater proportion to the whole value of the goods. Thus, for instance, in wire, or in fine wood-screws, the material does not make often one-tenth of the value; but in large bolts, and large nails, it makes fix-tenths: so that a saving of five per cent. in material of the latter, is of fix times the advantage that it is in the former, fairly and accurately: but in reality it operates more powerfully than in the proportion of fix to one, for the six will always be considered as an object desireable to be saved, tho' the other may not be considered.

confidered as worth thinking about at all; for it is a mistake, to think that things are always regarded and valued according to mathematical or numerical quantity, as it would appear to a reasoning theorist they ought to be; for to the mind, as well as to the eye, there are quan-

tities too small to be perceived or noticed.

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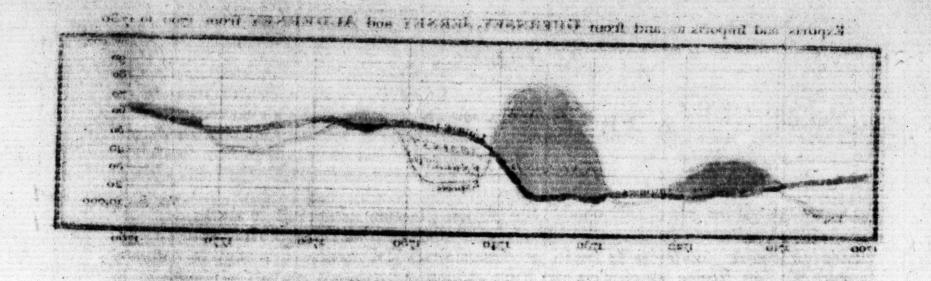
The Author of this was at an experiment made by Mr. Cort of Gosport, where two tons of rough iron, in a very rude state, was converted first into rough bars, and then into nail-rods, in about an hour, by being heated to a white welding-heat, and made to pass through between two iron rollers while at that heat. This seemed to produce a very instantaneous effect upon the nature of the iron, improving it considerably in quality every time it went through. This invention, however, tho' it met with the approbation of most that were there, (and a number of iron-masters were present) has not yet prevailed; for it is not the interest, either of the masters or the workmen, to encourage and adopt a mode so new, as to render useless the machinery of the former, and the skill of the latter. There may perhaps too be disadvantages in actual practice, that were not then obvious; but certainly, to judge from the appearance, the invention seemed deserving the utmost encouragement; and if the advantage was equal to the superior mechanical power of rolling above that of a hammer, it would gain us a great superiority over Sweden and Russia in the manufacture of iron.

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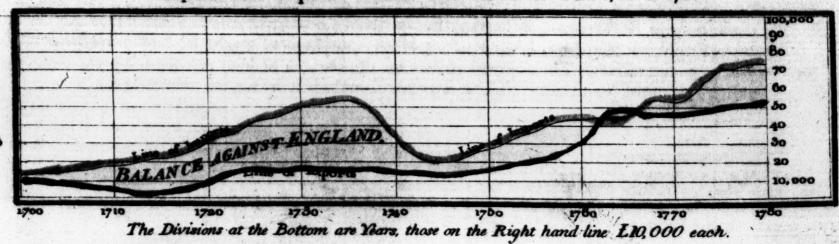


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Exports and Imports to and from AFRICA from 1700 to 1780.



Published as the Ace direct, Nº May 1786, by W? Playdele.

TRADE TO AFRICA,

HE nature of this trade, certainly not the most honourable in the world, affords room for much investigation and remark in a moral or humane point of view: in a political or a commercial light it is perhaps less conspicuously an object of attention. It consists chiefly of commodities that are confidered as holding a first rate place in the animal and the mineral world, for which in return the Africans receive the most rascally articles that the ingenuity of Europeans has found means to produce. In return for our fellow creatures, for gold, and for ivory, we exchange the basest of those articles that are suited to the taste or the fancy of a despicable set of Barbarians. Whether the spirituous liquors or the fire-arms that are sent there, are most calculated for the destruction of the purchasers, might become a question not very easy to determine. The noxious quality of the one, is at least equalled by the danger attending the use of the other.* There does not seem to be that regard to honour in this trade, which

energy our pro-bully special frequency to the first buy the state of

^{*} A gentleman who was going through a manufactory of guns in England, observed, they looked very coarse and insufficient. He was told they were for Africa, as a reason for their being so bad. He then asked a man who was making the barrels whether they would bear proving: " Why master, says he, if you would the print the print to the print of the printing and the printing of the print

which ought to make part of the nice character of the English merchant, unimpeachable, and unimpeached. Upon the 'Change of London or of Amsterdam it seems as if we kept our honour for ourselves, and that with these Barbarians (who are more inferior in address and cunning, than perhaps in any thing else) no honour, humanity, or equity, were at all necessary.

The nations of Europe who have diftinguished themselves by the appellation of civilized, and of Christians, have uniformly shewn this base disposition; and there is not more reason for faying that hawks will kill pidgeons, than that Europeans make free with the lives, property, and possessions of the natives, whether of India, Africa, or America. Nobody will fay that if the hawk could eat the pidgeon, without putting it to death, "it would not do it." And if an European can enrich himself without injuring the natives of these defenceless countries, he is willing to do it; but we are unacquainted yet with any crime or any cruelty, that would over-balance the love of gain in the breast of Europeans, when dealing with defenceless natives, whether they are the more civilized inhabitants of Peru, the irafcible ones of Africa, or the mild natives of the Afiatic world: those who reap the fruits of their rapine, meet with the honour and regard that gold is generally fure to purchase; and the industrious at home, who acquire wealth by a more honourable means, share in the ignominy thrown upon their country, without having themselves fufficient regard to national character, or to justice, to put the mark of diffrace and aversion upon fuch actions, though And in all and and to which and another and in the state of The odoes not lettered by that regard to how

know, I can tell you I had rather stand before her than let her off." These guns are not bored except for a few inches, nor are they found welded; and they lame the poor people in Africa wretchedly, who are fo foolish as to make use of them. Another species of imposition, less dangerous indeed, was practised a few years ago. There was a demand for a fort of bracelet made of brass; the quality of the brass was debased as low as possible. At last the ingenuity of deceir found out a way of making them of cast iron, turning off the outside skin, and covering them with a folution of copper, which fold for brafs, 'till the ignorant natives found out the deception; but it was a trade for fome years.

The wealth that arises from the cultivation of our West Indian Plantations by means of slaves, is much disputed. It has been affirmed by many, that the labour of slaves is more expensive than that of hired servants; and there is reason to believe that it is so; for, from the nature and constitution of men, we may be well convinced that no punishment can operate so effectually as the love of gain. Men are often found in that state when they are hardened against the fear of pain, but never when they are indifferent to the pleasures purchased by money. Another thing is, that the most arbitrary master cannot give a willing mind; and who is there among men who does not know, that the degree of labour of which the human body is capable, is regulated full as much by the temper of the mind, as the strength of the

body.

In this country, houses for labour, or the works to which notorious criminals are confined, never pay, because they are brought in competition with the labour of free men. Were the labour of slaves, in like manner, opposed to that of free men (seasoned and suited to the climate) it is probable it also would be found not to pay. Natives of Britain certainly cannot undergo that labour, which is necessary to cultivate plantations in hot climates; besides, they do not leave this country with an intention to labour at the meaner employments. But our islands are different from other parts of the world, if they require a continual new supply of people from other countries. Allowing, however, that they do require a supply, it cannot be so considerable as to oblige great numbers to be imported every year, if they were properly treated. It may perhaps be said, that good treatment will not do with Negroes; at first it might not, but they would soon be convinced that it was their interest to behave well, and they would do it. No man would wish to emancipate the whole slaves in an island at once, but it might be done by degrees, and laws might previously be made for the purpose of regulating them, when made free. Perhaps it might be necessary to prevent them from ever purchasing

chasing land, and to lay them under some other restrictions of that kind: perhaps also it might be necessary to make a different set of punishments, for crimes committed by them or their descendants; and if it were expected that money or territory were to be the reward of this experiment, it would soon be made, in this age of adventure; but as that might not be the case, and as humanity is the great argument, it is likely that it will not have much weight with those people, on whom alone its operation is of any consequence.

money. Another thing is, that the small arbitrary higher cannot give a willing intend and money is there among excalm to deer, but know, that the degree of dairness of which the beating hopey is appalle, in equalised full as much by the resequer of the mind, as the first energy to its test.

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TRADE TO GUERNSEY, JERSEY, AND ALDERNEY.

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THIS branch of our trade, which is but small in amount when compared with most of those which have been represented in this work, is not small when we consider the extent of country, and the numbers of inhabitants in these little islands, who are very industrious,

It must occur to every person naturally, that the smaller a district or an island is, the exports and imports will be the greater when compared with the number of inhabitants. Take the exports and imports of all Europe with the other quarters of the world, considering Europe as one country, and it will not be found to amount to one shilling a person, per annum. Take the amount in Britain, it will be found about forty shillings a person. Consider what is bought and sold by a single village, and it will be still greater than that. And last of all, a single labouring family buys all that it uses, and sells all that it produces; and the meanest family taken in this way, does, proportionally, more buying and selling, than the richest state taken in a body. Consider the whole earth as one state, and it neither exports nor imports.

The internal trade, and external, which include all the foreign and domestic transactions of men, amount together, to the whole wealth produced by any nation, district, or family. As these two quantities compose a third, the increase of one of the quantities must be attended

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tended with the diminution of the other. Thus, suppose there is as much uncultivated ground in England, as, if cultivated, would grow as much flax as we import; then should our imports become less by all the flax, and our internal trade would increase: so that to form a real estimate of the wealth of a country, a vast number of things come in. The exports and imports form a good basis for the inquiry, but must be compared with those other circumstances of internal commerce and population. In treating of Russia it was observed, that it might be opulent and luxurious without any foreign trade at all, on account of its great extent, and variety of soil and climate; and farther, that at present its commerce is inconsiderable, when compared with its extent. Every person who pays attention to these subjects, must soon know this fact, and it is of particular consequence that it should be always kept in view, else they will be liable to make very false conclusions.

When some old facts are told, without considering all these things, England seems to have been a very mean, poor country; but when they enter into the calculation, we find, that part of its great trade is occasioned by actual wealth, and part by different habits of life; for suppose we should chuse to live without the productions of the West, as we did four hundred years ago, and prefer English cloth and English food to the effeminate and luxurious fabrics and productions of the East; our own malt liquors to the wines of France and

* The chief Justiciary of England, Jeosery Fitzpierce, gave the King two good Norway bawki for a licence for Walter la Madine, to export one hundred pound weight of cheese out of the country. See Hume, Appendix II. page 133. And this was only a common transaction, and the manner in which the revenues of customs was originally instituted and levied.

Spain; our trade would be back at a very low ebb in a short time; tho' it is possible that even then we might be internally very rich, powerful, and luxurious in our own way.

To reasoning like this, which applies to all commerce whatever, more or less, we must attribute the amount of this comparatively considerable trade to these small islands.

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TRADE TO GUERNSBY, IRREST, INDIALDERNEY.

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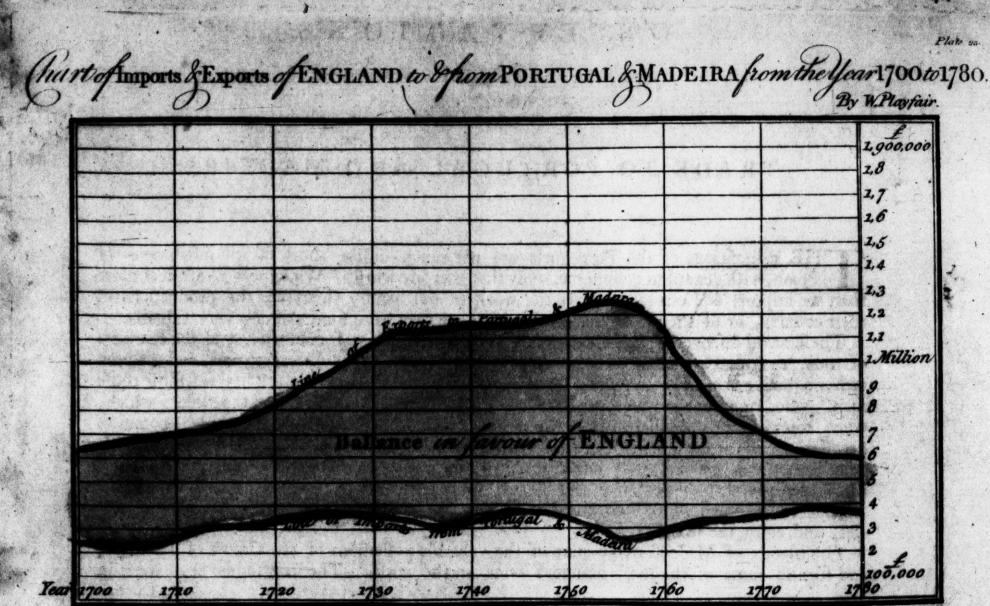
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TRADE TO PORTUGAL AND MADEIRA

different with articles that nothing norther variety; fugar, for inflance, bears a contain price, in

that notificity of innearion, or that fourthe price bring land, that employ one place on lan-

THE dispositions of the Portuguese are not much unlike those of the inhabitants of Spain, with regard to commerce, only that they are worse. We export a vast deal more than we import, and our exports are the work of our hands, theirs are the productions of their country, or of their possessions; of which last they have some that are very valuable.

These naval discoveries, which have altered the geography of countries, and the manners of men, were first begun by the Portuguese; but they soon gave up enterprize, and are now rather a passive than an active state, both in commerce and in politics. They resemble those men, who, ignorant of the useful arts of life, search for rarities and pebbles, which, when found, they exchange for what are ultimately much more valuable, common necessaries. It is not for their own use that they bring from all quarters of the world, what is most valuable and most rare; gold, pearls, and even diamonds, with the most aromatic and grateful of persumes and spices, from Africa, America, and the East. Those are reserved for men who have learned to salt sish, to raise corn, to manufacture the necessaries, and enjoy the luxuries of life.

The islands of Madeira make part of the valuable possessions of the Crown of Portugal, and furnish some of the most delicious wines in the world. The first sugars that were in Europe

Europe, are faid to have been produced in these islands; but they are not now the cheapest. and have given place to the cultivation of the vine, in which these islands may probably for ever remain unrivalled; for the particular flavour and variety of these wines exempt them from that possibility of imitation, or that specific price being fixed, that enables one place to supplant another in the market, for articles that are of less exquisite nicety. Wherever there is much variety in quality, there will be a latitude in price, either arising from taste or fashion. both of which are concerned in the use of wines, and liquors of all forts. The case is very different with articles that possess not that variety; sugar, for instance, bears a certain price, in proportion to its being finely manufactured; but people are not skilful in the taste, and there is no fashion in sugar; so that the cheapest market is the best. This produces the same distinction among the produce of different countries, that is so well known to exist between mechanical labour and the fine arts.

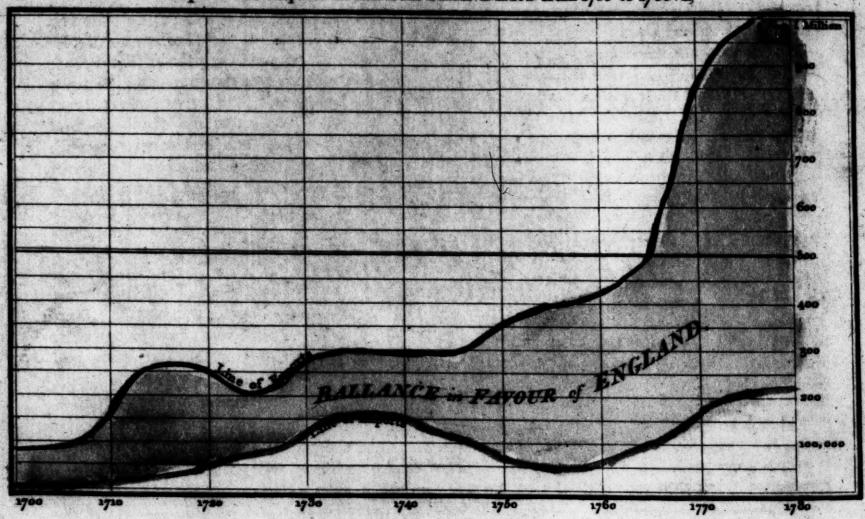
The number, or quality, measures the value of the former with precision; but excellence, and the opinion of men, fix a more undecided value on the latter. The one fort, therefore, very naturally fettle where they can be done cheapest, and the other where they may excel most. These two distinct characters, of the useful and the fine arts, intermix and divide in different degrees, and in a manner that gives rife to infinite variety. Much entertainment. and great instruction, would arise from an investigation at length of this, and of its consequences, as this diffinction enters into the value of most things, and is intimately connected with the general principle of commercial affairs.

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Imports and Exports to and from FLANDERS from 1700 to 1780 ...



The Bottom line is divided into Years, the Right hand line into £100;000 each .

Published as the Act directs 2" May 1786, by W" Playfair .

Hole sculp? 35s Strand, London :

OBSERVATIONS

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TRADE TO FLANDERS.

THE trade to Flanders, which confists chiefly of those of our manufactures that are necessary in a polished country, has become a very considerable and a very beneficial one,

within these thirty years.

The excellence of our hardwares, and many of our wove stuffs, have been the occasion of this late increase and balance in our favour. The imports from thence are very inconsiderable; for the excellence of our manufactures preclude the necessity of our importing any of the great articles of expence, and they have not natural productions to furnish us with to

any amount, at least not such as we want.

Particular places will always excel in the art of some manufactures, which are not worth while imitating in other parts, or which cannot, from the nature of things, be manufactured in every country, as there is not sufficient consumption to employ so many different manufactories; but except for which, and for the productions of the earth that are not to be found in England, there are not many manufactured finished goods imported. For whatever Flanders has to spare, there are other markets nearer at home, and better for them than England. Such a trade as this, is of more real advantage than ten times the amount to America.

100 OBSERVATIONS ON THE TRADE TO FLANDERS.

rica, which cannot pay for any thing foon, and often does not at all; and which opens a wide field for deception. Yet such is the disposition of men, that we value what is speculative and precarious, more than what is fafe and beneficial. The support and protection of our trade to Flanders ought to be a matter of public attention, as it is of public advantage.

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Exports and Imports of SCOTLAND to and from different parts for one Year from Christmas 1780 to Christmas 1781.

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O B S E R V A T I ON S

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TRADE OF SCOTLAND.

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THE limits of this work do not admit of representing the trade of Scotland for a series of years, which, in order to understand the affairs of that country, it would be necessary to do. Yet, though they cannot be represented at full length, it would be highly blameable

intirely to omit the concerns of so considerable a portion of this kingdom.

This Chart is different from the others in principle, as it does not comprehend any portion of time, and it is much inferior in utility to those that do; for though it gives the extent of the different branches of trade, it does not compare the same branch of commerce with itself at different periods; nor does it imprint upon the mind that distinct idea, in doing which, the chief advantage of Charts consists: for as it wants the dimension that is formed by duration, there is no shape given to the quantities.

The whole amount of the different branches of this trade, which do not amount to a million, would lead to the conclusion, that the trade of Scotland, and its wealth, are very inconsiderable. It is not half so great as the trade of Ireland was in the year 1760, nor above one twentieth part of the trade of England in 1770. As to the fact there can be no doubt,

but the conclusion for two reasons, is not a fair one.

First,

First, as Scotland is not an island, nor a kingdom by itself, but a part of Britain, as the trade by sea and land with England is not taken into this account, (and that alone is probably greater than all the remaining branches) it must be evident to every one, that there is a possibility of Scotland being very wealthy, and luxurious, without any foreign trade, in the same manner that any inland county of England may abound in riches, without having a

connection with any foreign country.

Another reason for the small foreign trade of Scotland is, that luxury is little advanced among the lower ranks of people, who consume almost no foreign produce of any kind. Their victuals are produced at home, they make their own linen, their coarse woollen stuffs, and the rude necessaries of a thatched cottage. So that excepting some hardwares, such as buttons, buckles, knives, forks, locks, hinges, spades, shovels, and a few trinkets, with some articles, all of which are of small amount when compared with the real expences of living, they need to import little from any country; and these things being English manufacture, do not make an oftensible part of their trade.

The principal foreign imports consist of flax, iron, (sometimes corn, tho' not often) wines, timber, and some other materials for ship-building; there is not, however, any article of lux-dry almost in use in England, that is not also used in Scotland, but not in great quantity; for whatever luxury is in the country, is consined to the higher ranks, the labouring people never enjoying any at all. As it is not internal wealth, but the wants of people that make foreign trade, and only such wants as they cannot supply at home; and as the bulk of the people in Scotland have sew wants that they do not themselves supply, their foreign trade is not a measure of their internal wealth, which, tho' it is not great, is not so small as from this Chart

we might be apt to conclude.

The industry of Scotland consists in constant, but not in vigorous exertion. The manners of the labouring people, and their habits of life, must undergo a great change before gene-

ral wealth, like that of England, will be diffused there. It is well known, that in respect to the soil and climate it has not been particularly favoured, the with regard to the industrious disposition of the people, it has generally been reckoned more fortunate; and perhaps they possess the original requisites for getting rich in a pretty high degree, but they want the great spur to industry, which is necessary.

Then who will be satisfied with the use of a little, have no need to earn much; and this is the case with labourers in Scotland, as it was before observed, the little that they do require, is the produce of their own country. As no man works for another, unless he wants to be possessed of something that the other has got, the people of Scotland are under little necessity of labouring for exportation; and accordingly, in proportion to the capitals that are in the country, it is wonderful how little is employed in making goods for foreign markets.*

As either real, or artificial wants, are generally allowed to be the fole motives for industry; as the real wants of the people in Scotland are supplied by themselves, and they have very few artificial ones, they are under no necessity to labour more than they do at present. That they

While Scotch industry is confined to the home-market, it will never be very great. The home-market being always limited to a certain consumption, men are afraid of doing too much, and of wanting employment; and this is actually the case with workmen there, tho' it is a feeling almost unknown in England. When we confider also, that in a nation living thus as it were within itself, the tiches of one man depends on those of his neighbour, when a misfortune comes, it is widely diffused, and universally felt. In a barren year, when farmers are not able to pay their reats well, both landlords and tenants employ few tradesmen, who, of course, can buy and sell less among themselves; so that the whole community is put upon short allowance for a year or two, which never happens in a manufacturing country; for general manufactures, like oil on the surface of water, make the surface of wealth level, and nothing else does. Even the fertility of Egypt has known a famine for a want of manufactures; but it a good general manufacture exists upon a barren rock, it will be improvidence alone that will let want be felt there.

they do not labour so much as they ought to do, and as they could do, remains still to be

proved a contract of house of the bound of the deliberation of the bound of the bou The necessaries of life bear a certain proportion to wages of manual labour, where there is no skill employed; for in every country, the meanest labourer must get enough to maintain himself and a family. Were labourers to live upon the same food in Scotland, that they do in England, they would require to have about two-thirds of the wages that they have in England, for the food is about one-third cheaper there.* In that case, the industry of the one would be equal to the industry of the other, without regard to the difference of the nominal money, which is not fo true a measure of the value, as the labour itself is. The wages of common labour, however, is not near two thirds of the price of labour in England, because, according to the mode of living, and the victuals they eat, they can support themselves and families for less than two-thirds of the nominal money. It would appear from this, that the labour in Scotland is paid for at a lower rate than in England; for in proportion to the price of food it is not equally high; yet the contrary is the case, and labour is paid for at a higher rate rather in Scotland than in England. It is not so easy to estimate the wages of the labour of men employed in agriculture, as of artificers who work by the week, or of labourers who work by the day. The wages for hired labour in England varies, from 8 to 13s. in the week; in London it is 12s. in inland counties 10s. or 10s. 6d.

The wages of common artificers in England is from 15s. to a guinea; fuch as carpenters, joiners, black-smiths, &c. In London the lowest is 16s. the common rate 18s. and higher a

guinea; in the country it is about two or three shillings a week lower. tong the manufactor commands a made many that as and commandered by a property command in the Mall of the

the me has take more approved a property the system of the state of the same

^{*} The division of labour prevents the proportion between good living and industry from being so distinctly obvious as it would otherwise be.

In Scotland, the wages of the same sort of common labour, that is, 10 or 12s. in England, is from 4 to 6s. The wages of artificers are from 6 to 9s. a week; so that they are not in any case equal to half what they are in England. This being the case, the labour in Scotland seems to be considerably under par, and the things produced by labour should be under too: the contrary, however, is the case. Hammered iron-work is as dear in Scotland as it is in England, in actual money.* Now, it ought to be, on account of the different value of money, at least one-sixth cheaper than it is in England. The work of joiners and carpenters, when as well executed, is full as dear; and in general, the building branch is equal in expence as in England; and cabinet-work is not much cheaper, tho' it is greatly inferior in goodness.

As the wages of labour are not half so high in Scotland as in England, but the things produced are nearly as dear, the conclusion is unavoidable, that they do not work so hard, at

least not near so productively.

There is not in abilities, in difference of bodily strength, or in any constitutional circumstance, a reason for this; for when the same men come to England, they can work as hard, and as productively as Englishmen. The methods of doing work are more expeditious in England than in Scotland, for they are better, but this alone would not make so great a difference; the change is brought about certainly by necessity; that thing which is wanting to stimulate industry at home, presses hard here, and it continues to press. The vigor given by better

^{*}Suppose iron-work, value 6d, per lb. in London, should be only 41d. in Scotland; thus, deduct 2d. the original value of iron, then there remains 4d. for labour. As labour should nominally be 1 cheaper, it ought to be 21d. but if the men in Scotland worked as hard as they do in England, and at their present wages, the 4d. would be diminished to less than 2d. so that the iron-work would be under 4d. that is, 1 cheaper, tho' we only claim 1 in the argument, Upon the whole, iron-work is dearer in Scotland than in England, for in the manufacturing counties it is 2 cheaper than in any part of Scotland, and much better.

better and more enlivening food enables the body to bear an exertion of vigorous industry, to which it was perfectly unaccustomed; and the temporary avocations that even the lowest men allow themselves in this country, form at once an incitement and reward to a continuance of exertion.

To reverse the case of improving Scotland, which we have been endeavouring to prove might be done by introducing luxury among the lower ranks of men; let us consider what would be necessary to reduce England to the state of Scotland. Suppose those men who at present eat roast beef, and drink strong malt liquor, could, by any supernatural power, be made to live contentedly upon out-meal and potatoes, with butter-milk and small-beer, so that they could live upon two shillings a week; is it possible to suppose that these men would be at the pains to work hard, to earn fix times as much money as they used? or is it possible that the labouring people should all be rich; if it were possible that they could continue to do so for some time, when would it end? Each man would get a small fortune, (for tery little would be a fortune to men that could live so cheap) and he would cease to be industrious. In short, it is so impossible to conceive this, that we must at once be satisfied, indolence would be the consequence of living cheap, as industry is of living dear.

The changes that take place upon the manners of a country, are flow and gradual. Length of time is necessary to produce much in Scotland, but it is going on faster than it did. Perhaps no country is blessed with a more liberal-minded nobility and gentry than Scotland; it is their interest to improve arts and manufactures, and they generally do all they can: tho' it is not by the iplendid establishment of a large company, but by regulations on their own estates, that it is most essecually to be brought about. The real advantages derived from adventure, are not much known in Scotland, they have undertaken but few, and the number in which

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they can boast of success, is still more inconsiderable.

Some

Some of the methods so well known and practised in the manufacturing counties in England would facilitate this change, without any expence, more completely than perhaps the more liberal and noble methods which the men of landed property would naturally take. To induce labourers to work hard, it is absolutely necessary to introduce the custom of paying according to the work done. It is a mistake to prefer employing men who take low wages; there is feldom so much difference of price as there is in the labour; it is far cheaper to employ a man who can get a good deal, and put work through hand. Letting out work by the piece, as it is called in England, that is, paying according to quantity, and not to time, when it can be done, is best both for the master and the labourer; in general men labour so as to get one-half more, and to bring the work one-third or one-fourth cheaper.* Another thing necessary is, never to employ more workmen than can do the business, but rather fewer, and to keep them hard at work; and if expedition is necessary, to let them labour earlier and later, rather than take on new workmen. This would produce industry among the labourers, and fave money to the gentlemen: were this practifed upon every estate with the labourers, they would foon change their habits, and wages would rife at the same time that the real value of labour would fall.

To enable men to live better and work harder, the use of strong malt liquor should be encouraged, and the killing of butcher-meat, in every little town or village. One consequence would be, that a number of men would be turned out of bread just at first; this would not be a pleasing circumstance of this plan, but it is this that is to be the foundation of all the E e

As gentlemen of landed property do not consider how this happens, when a man comes to get more wages than usual they think it a cheat, and give over; but this is only for want of being accustomed to that mode of doing business, as it is far the least expensive: as it is cheaper to keep good horses and feed them well, than to keep poor weak horses that can live upon straw.

good, for there would be the more found to fish upon the coasts, and manufacture for exportation. At this time, when a public and a spirited exertion is making to encourage fishing, it would be a good time to begin endeavouring to suppress superstuous hands in other lines, who will therefore take to that employment. Certainly, by encouraging sisheries, it is meant to employ more hands, and where are they to come from but from other businesses?* The time to lop off the people in one way, is certainly, therefore, the fit time to encourage the other.

Were these things done, the wealth of Scotland would soon increase, and it does not ap-

pear that it would be attended with expence and risk even in the first instance.

- There might be a number of other things necessary to complete, or facilitate this plan, which is here only rudely hinted at, as entering into it fully, would be foreign to this pub-

lication.

The spirit of adventure is but very small in Scotland, tho' it has with the world at large a very different character. The ambition, and love of adventure, and of project, that has been attributed to men who come from thence, are acquired from future views in life, and not from original intention or education. Uncertainty of prospects makes adventure necessary, and indulges hope, which frequently gives rise to the most extravagant ambition. It is

I There is nothing in the least degree original in this plan, it is exactly conformable to the manner in which

business is carried on in the most prosperous parts of England.

^{*} There are some objections to everything, and it will be said, what, will a carpenter become a fisherman, and the day-labourer throw by the spade and take hold of the net? Yes—the carpenter will build boats, and the other will use them; but the advantage will be, that both will bring up their children to those occupations, and in 10 or 15 years the present inconvenience will be intirely at an end.

perfectly natural that an elder brother, who had always plenty, should be contented with a moderate fortune; while a younger one, born with less pleasing prospects, acquires thousands, and struggles eagerly for thousands more. This has occasioned the world to mistake Scotland as being filled with men of enterprize and adventure, when the direct contrary is the case, in so great a degree, that the preference given by them to what is certain, over what is in any degree a risk, is one principal bar to the improvement of the country.

The chief export from Scotland is linen, tho' many finer branches of weaving are now come to great perfection. By land there are great numbers of cattle continually sent into England. The balance of trade in reality must be in its favour, because the taxes levied by Government are not nearly all spent in the country, besides great sums of money that the

proprietors of land bring every year to London.

| PLATE | XXI. | SW | EDE | N. | 77 |
|-------|------|----|-----|----|----|
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PLATE XXII. GUERNSEY, JERSEY, AND ALDERNEY.

| Years. | Exports. | Imports. | |
|--------|----------|----------|--------------|
| 1700, | 57,000 | 197,000 | |
| 1710, | 46,000 | 160,000 | * * |
| 1720, | 35,000 | 154,000 | |
| 1730, | 29,000 | 183,000 | |
| 1740, | 33,000 | 186,000 | the state of |
| 1750, | 30,000 | 196,000 | |
| 1760, | 25,000 | 212,000 | |
| 1770, | 57,000 | 209,000 | - |
| 1780, | 95,000 | 198,000 | |

| Exports. | Imports. |
|----------|---|
| 9,000 | 30,000 |
| 25,000 | 25,000 |
| 27,000 | 20,000 |
| 45,000 | 18,000 |
| 50,000 | 39,000 |
| 40,000 | 55,000 |
| 50,000 | 57,000 |
| 46,000 | 51,000 |
| 64,000 | 61,000 |
| | 9,000 25,000 27,000 45,000 50,000 40,000 46,000 |

PLATE XXIII. AFRICA.

PLATE XXIV. PORTUGAL & MADEIRA.

| Years. | Exports. | Imports. |
|--------|----------|----------|
| 1700, | 11,000 | 14,000 |
| 1710, | 7,000 | 18,000 |
| 1720, | 12,000 | 30,000 |
| 1730, | 18,000 | 50,000 |
| 1740, | 15,000 | 32,000 |
| 1750, | 16,000 | 27,000 |
| 1760, | 30,000 | 43,000 |
| 1770, | 48,000 | 53,000 |
| 1780, | 53,000 | 73,000 |

| Years, | Exports. | Imports. |
|-----------|-----------|----------|
| 1700, | 630,000 | 250,000 |
| 1710, | 700,000 | 275,000 |
| 1720, | 800,000 | 350,000 |
| 1730, | 1,070,000 | 365,000 |
| 1740, | 1,140,000 | 340,000 |
| 1750, | 1,200,000 | 350,000 |
| 1760, | 1,110,000 | 300,000 |
| 1770, | 680,000 | 360,000 |
| 1780, | 590,000 | 370,000 |
| | | |

CONTENTS OF THE PLATES IN FIGURES.

PLATE XXV. FLANDERS.

| Years. | Exports. | Imports. |
|--------|-----------|----------|
| 1700, | 80,000 | 7,000 |
| 1710, | 150,000 | 20,000 |
| 1720, | 245,000 | 51,000 |
| 1730, | 270,000 | 125,000 |
| 1740, | 290,000 | 150,000 |
| 1750, | 345,000 | 70,000 |
| 1760, | 420,000 | 70,000 |
| 1770, | 840,000 | 175,000 |
| 1780, | 1,050,000 | 225,000 |

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PLATE XXVI.

EXPORTS and IMPORTS of SCOTLAND, to different Countries, in the Year 1780.

| Places | Exports. | Imports. |
|---------------------|----------|----------|
| Ireland, | 305,167 | 195,685 |
| America, | 183,620 | 49,826 |
| West Indies, | 141,220 | 169,375 |
| Russia, | 5,915 | 209,000 |
| Sweden, | 4,793 | 18,793 |
| Flanders, | 56,452 | 45,803 |
| Germany, | 26,458 | 26,659 |
| Guernsey, | 17,285 | 5,197 |
| Holland, | | 13,563 |
| Iceland, | | 465 |
| Portugal, | 678 | 14,614 |
| Prussia, | 82 | 96 |
| Poland, | 161 | 7,389 |
| Greenland, | | 8,291 |
| Isle of Man, | 1,818 | 802 |
| Jersey, | | |
| Denmark and Norway, | 35,011 | 28,118 |
| Total, | 763,100 | 803,860 |

This is agreeable to Account figned Robert Menzies, Richard Gardner, Acting Inspectors of Imports and Exports, 24th Nov. 1783.

Taken from Lord Sheffield's Observations on Commerce.

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PLATE XXIII - TO THE TOTAL TO THE TOTAL TO THE TANK OF THE TANK OF

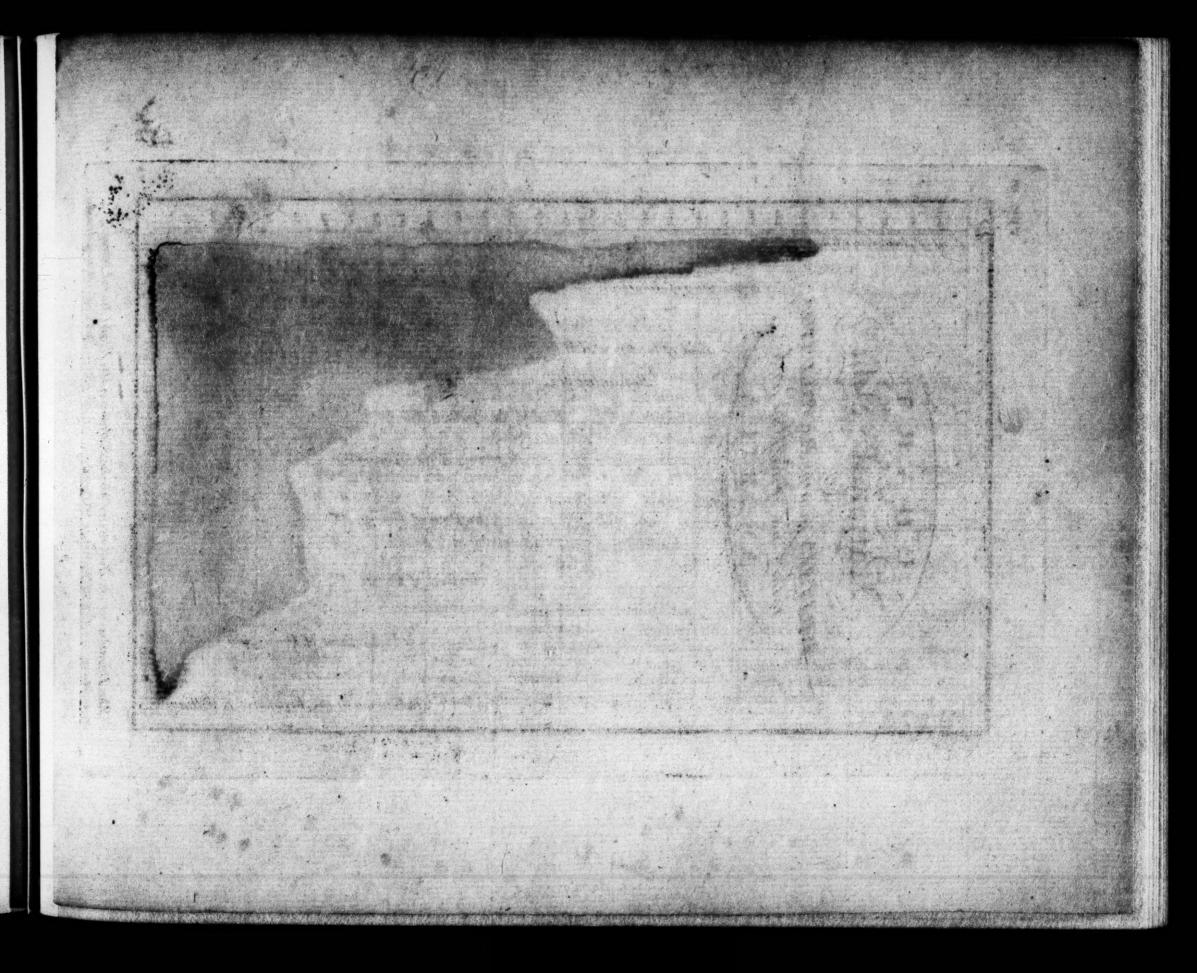
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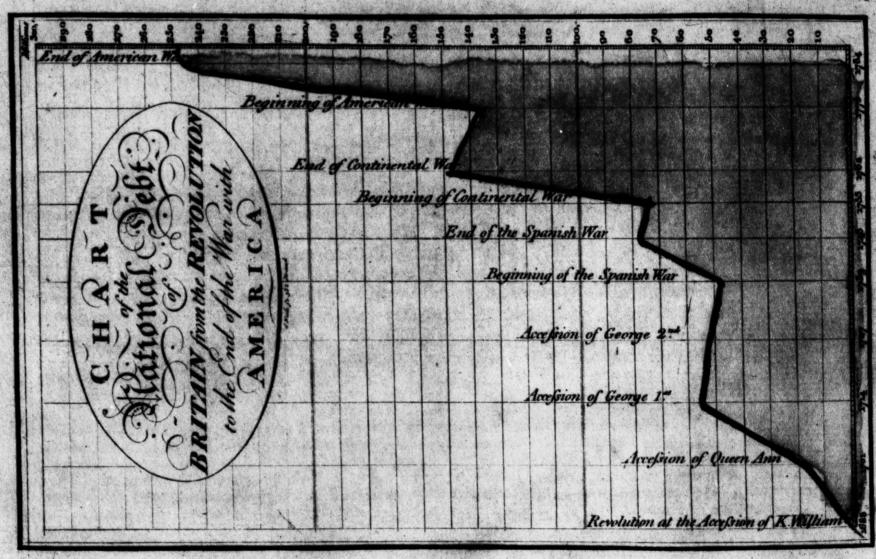
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NATIONAL DEBT.

THE effects of that heavy load of debt under which we groan, are felt by every individual in the nation. To discover the best mode of paying it off, has employed the attention of many able men, in every rank of society. Much ability has been discovered by some. It

has given rife both to learned and deep inquiries, and to contemptible reverie.

. Mire farmeres of the region

The rate at which our debt has in time past accumulated, as represented in this Chart, is sufficient to alarm people who have an eye to suturity. The eye of prudence is always turned with attention, to an evil that continues constantly to increase, however gradual and slow its progress may be; but when precipitate mischief perseveres in its approach, the careless and the negligent are unable to withhold their attention.*

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With-

The instability of Government, before the first accumulation of debt, is said to have suggested to King William the idea of establishing his family and his throne more solidly, by means of a structure of this sort; and it is not unlikely. First, the character of the King, and the knowledge which he possessed, by being acquainted with the sinances of Holland, make this possible. Secondly, he did the thing, and it has produced that effect. There is reason to think that the Crown has still persevered in the same politics, but without King William's wisdom. He would have known when to stop, as well as when to begin: the ineffectual and imbedia attempts that have

Without aspiring to the honour of devising new modes of reducing this structure, or without the fatigue of reviewing the merits of the different plans that have already been concerted, let us only consider, in a general way, the nature of the debt, and of the necessity and manner of paying it off.

The

been made to pay off the debt, which feem to have only been intended rather to divert the attention of the people, than to diminish the debt, are a reason for thinking that the same system continues. We cannot attribute it to want of ability, for the increase of the thing itself is a proof, that we possessed more than sufficient power. We cannot attribute it to want of knowledge, because the evil has been often canvassed, and excellent plans proposed; but we are not equally certain that it has not been done wilfully. The conjecture that feems to be the most reasonable concerning the end of the affair is this: when taxes become very high, the Minister and the Crown continuing to persevere in paying, with strict honour, the interest, a commotion will be excited; and tho the nation will never, as a nation, forfeit its honour, yet in order to get rid of that which they cannot bear longer, a revolution will take place that will fet things down again, clear as at first. The way then to perfect the plan which King William had, or is thought to have had the honour of first laying down, would be, to keep the debt from rifing to any enormous pitch; it is already much greater than was necessary to make fleady the fucceffion, and it may foon be great enough to make it unfteady. Prophecies concerning the debt have not been made with the latitude of the divinations of ancient oracles, elfe they would have been in more repute than they now are. We consider them to be nonsense, because they have failed, and the debt has increased above what they faid it was possible. The amount to which it may rise there is no data upon which to calculate, and to speak of Government becoming bankrupt, is not to speak very considerately. As long as this Government exists, from its very nature, it must, and will fulfil its agreements; the Government must end, a temporary anarchy ensue, and a new Government, of different identity, and that is not responsible for former engagements, will take its place. This has fo many arguments to support its probability, that we can scarcely doubt that it will be the case.

As long as the Government remains, the people who are stock-holders are sufficiently powerful to prevent any injustice being done to themselves. Therefore, before it can happen, Government must cease, and the power

The expences of all nations have been greater in times of war than of peace; and when mankind were but in a very rude state, they learned from experience, the necessity of hoarding money in peaceable times, in order to be able to support those wars which they knew

power be lodged in the people for a while. The nature too, of the people of England, which is peculiar to themfelves, is exceedingly likely to take fuch a turn; and who can fay what might happen, if other wars should come, and make five millions more of taxes necessary. Some decisive way should be taken to prevent a chance of risk to so glorious a constitution, and to preserve a family under which we are so happy; but there cannot be a man existing so simple as to believe, or so hardened as to maintain, that unless effectual methods are taken to reduce the debt, it must end in destroying itself, sooner or later. It may be said, that we cannot take more effectual methods than we do, that we are already over-loaded with taxes. Supposing we are insulted by France, dare we refift? Dare we declare war? No Englishman will doubt that we dare, and who is there that knows not that an increase of taxes will be the consequence of the war, and such an increase as would soon reduce the debt? We are either ruined already, and cannot defend ourselves, or else we possess resources sufficient to reduce the debt to what it was in the days of George the First, when the throne was stable, and the subjects were not oppressed. Let us again view this in another light. Is not the National Debt a debt of the Crown and the Parliament, to the holders of stock, which, by the constitution, the subjects of this country are bound to pay to Parliament? Whenever affairs come to that crisis, when the taxes are greater than the people will submit to pay, the first thing must necessarily be, to renounce the authority of the Crown and the Parliament; but 'till they do that, the interest must be regularly paid. The debts are instantly then at an end; for stock-holders have no claims on a Government that ceases to exist, and that non-existing Government can have no claims on the subject; for as Parliament was the step between the people and the stock-holders, these latter have no claims on the former; or if they had, they would have no way of making them good. The most distressful scene would then ensue that can be imagined; but diffressful as it certainly would be, there is no doubt that it must one day happen, if effectual means are not taken to reduce the debt. Every man of property in the kingdom is deeply concerned in an effectual plan being fettled, and the holders of stock are collectively, but not separately, very deeply concerned. The ease with which property is bought and fold, facilitated the increase of the immense structure; but it prevents any bargain from being made with stock-holders upon the principle of their general interest, as every individual trusts to his own power of felling out whenever he pleases, and puts no value upon any evil that may arrive to the whole, at what they deem a distant day.

knew might be expected. This fystem was long practised, and we have not yet seen many centuries since it was fully exploded. Tho' this was the natural way, and indeed the only one at first, yet it is one that would not answer at all in the present state of things. The money necessary to defray the expences of war, were inconsiderable in the ancient world, compared with what they are in this; and the chief expences were defrayed by individuals, for they alternately ravaged each other's countries, and private property was seized for the maintenance of public armies. When the confederate nations of Greece performed the mighty expedition against Troy, which the genius of Homer has rendered immortal, the armament must have cost the Greeks some expence; but after the siege began, they lived, and carried on war for many years, at the expence of Trojan territory; and the Trojans, as individuals, supported the chief expence of the war. Alexander's wars, and those of the Romans in later times, were carried on in the same manner; for had they payed as we do, the countries of Gaul and of Britain would never have reimbursed the original expence of conquest. It has only been in the modern times, that war has become the business of the State alone, and not of individuals.

It is not necessary to insist on the impossibility of laying up money to serve for future wars, as it is totally inconsistent with the nature of things, in their present state; and the mode of borrowing from money-holders, is certainly infinitely better adapted to the circumstances of a commercial State; and the principle upon which the British Funds are founded, is a great improvement upon the original mode of borrowing; but like other things that answer well, we are too ready to make use of it.

There are only two ways of borrowing; the one is at the natural rate of interest of the country, in which case the capital remains unpaid, and still due to the lender; the other is, when more than common interest is paid; in which case both capital and interest determine

and end at a certain day. All loans, whatever may be their particular nature, come under one or other of these heads. There are likewise only two motives for borrowing money. One is to use in trade, or to improve grounds, &c. &c. in which case a gain is generally produced that pays the interest as it becomes due, besides a profit, which, in time, repays the original debt, and leaves some gain remaining to the borrower.

The other occasion for borrowing money is merely to use in living, in expence, or in pleasure; in which case no prosit is produced, and the borrower must pay both the interest

and capital from other funds or resources, as itself produces none.

This last mentioned cause for borrowing is ruinous in its nature, as the other, when wisely done, is advantageous; and if loans of this sort are to be contracted, it is most advantageous to borrow them at a high rate of interest, to determine at a certain day. Money borrowed for the purpose of carrying on business, on the contrary, should be borrowed upon the lowest rate of interest, as it is producing a fund to repay the capital sum.

The nature of national loans are of the first fort, that do not pay; therefore they should be at high interest, that they may determine at a certain day; for if not, they will continue

to accumulate.

There is a future Chart of Annuities, which will explain this better; but at this place we

must consider the nature of perpetual loans, when made by a nation to carry on war.

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The effect which is before us in the Chart, is the natural one of perpetual loans; for tho' it might have been managed a little better, or a little worse, as long as it continued upon this plan, it must have increased, unless as much money had been levied in time of peace, as would pay off the debt contracted in the war before; but if this were done, it would be the same with annuities, because it would be raising taxes to pay off, at a certain time, the capital of the debt. That however, has not been done, content with getting possession of the

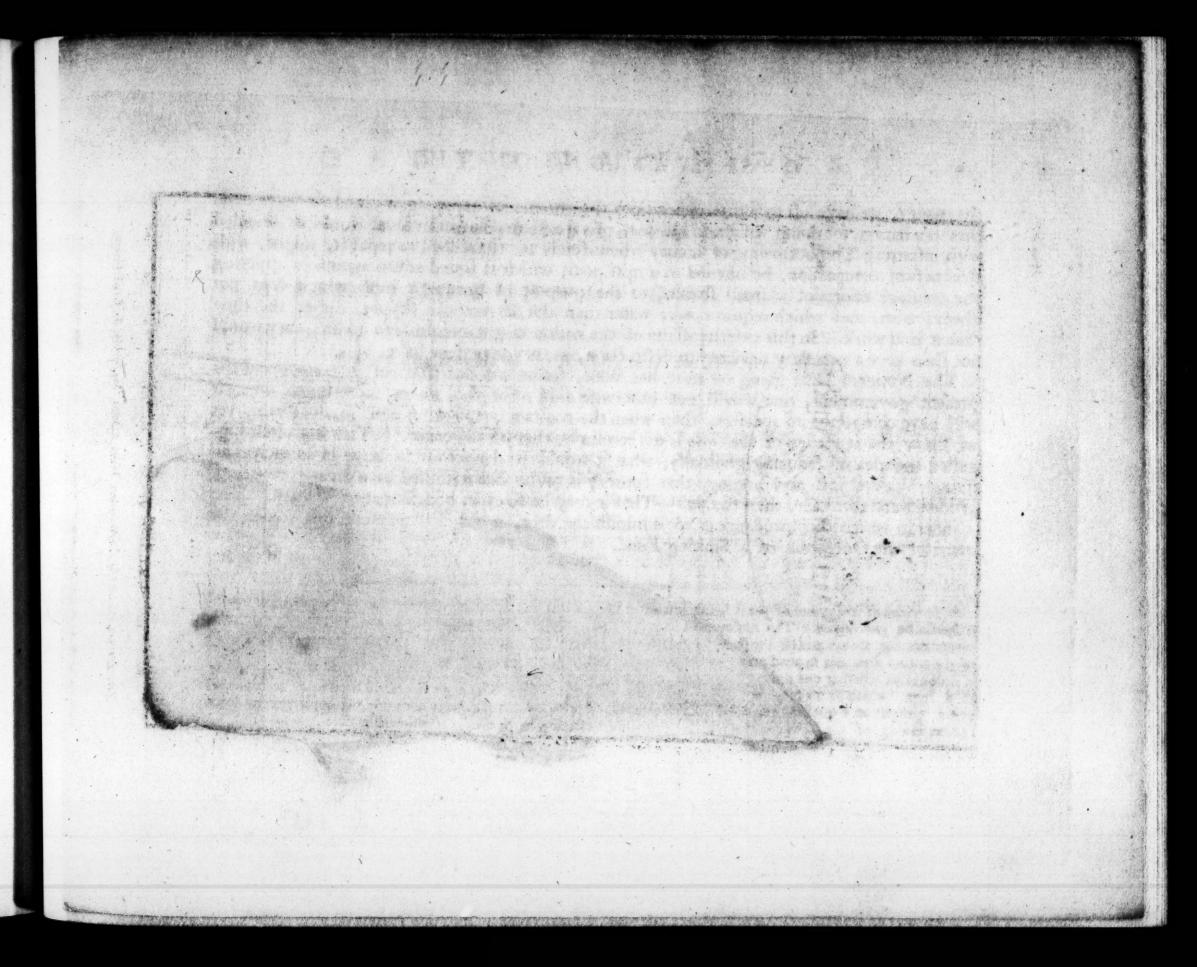
the money, we have left to future generations the trouble of repaying it; and we have done that as a nation, for doing which, in his own private affairs, any individual would be branded with infamy. The borrowing of money where funds are established to repay it, might, with strictness of comparison, be likened to a mill pool, which is found advantageous in applying the constant efforts of a small stream, to the purpose of turning a mill, which does not always turn, and which requires more water than the stream can supply, during the time that it is at work. In this case the affairs of the nation might continue to go on; they would

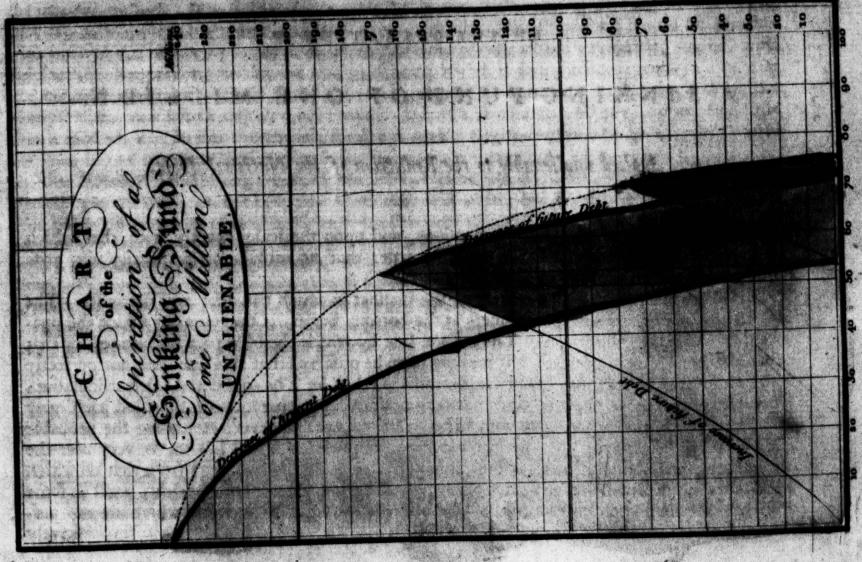
not then have a necessary tendency to destruction, as they at present have.

The National Debt going on as it has done, forms a connection between time and the present government, that would not otherwise exist; for the we no more know when it will have completed its measure, than when the constant evaporation will produce rain, yet we know the tendency of the one is as certain as that of the other.* This has often suggested the idea of reducing gradually, what it would be dangerous to leave in an increasing state. We are just now hoping, that suturity is to be distinguished by a greater degree of prudence and fortitude, than the past—That it may be so every honest man must wish. The manner in which this prudence is to diminish the debt, is our next consideration, under the name of the Operation of a Sinking Fund.

OBSER-

The idea of a number of years being but as one hour to a nation, is right enough; but nation is not the word, it should be government. The nation will continue to be a nation, we need be in no fear of that; but governments do not always possess the same longevity. To use the word nation then, is wrong, because the existence of the nation does not depend on any measures; and with regard to the government, which does, it is not true: it is doubtful whether one hour of its existence is equal to four of our common hours, reckoning by the life of a man, which four times told, is two hundred and forty years. Some governments have not lived to this age. It might be a question for those who are curious, to reckon the average duration of governments since the beginning of the history: it would not probably be found to be on the antideluvian scale.





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A SINKING FUND OF ONE MILLION,

Applied unalienably to the Reduction of the National Debt.

THIS Chart is of the same dimensions, and upon the scale exactly with that which represents the increase of the debt, in order that no mistake or perplexity may arise

in drawing between the two an exact comparison.

The part that is stained blue represents the manner in which the debt will diminish. The line of years from which the numbers at the bottom begin, is the year on which the operation of the fund commences. The curved line by which the blue part is bounded, is that in which the debt will decrease. It may perhaps be observed that this line does not perfectly agree with some calculations that have been made; but let it be considered, that calculations have differed from one another, and that very possibly, the operation of the fund irself may have the presumption not to agree with either. This curve, however, reckoning the probable expence of management, and the inconsiderable annuities that will fall in, is very near the calculation; and the most pertinacious cannot say that it differs two years from that on which the fund was instituted. Every calculation respecting the payment of the debt, must in some degree be founded upon uncertainty, as there are two things that operate which are not possitively

fitively determined. The value of the capital (which is varying every day) and the expences of management, are both, in some degree, uncertain quantities, and upon these two must every calculation depend; so that it is impossible to be certain within a small sum, or to a short

time. This line is corrected by what feems a probable allowance for the inaccuracy.

During the operation of this fund, the money raised by taxes will be as completely appropriated as it was when the whole revenues of England were not above one-tenth of what they are at present, or as it has been at any former period. It is not only consistent with the nature of things, but it may be affirmed to be as certain, that future wars will occasion future debts, as that disease occasions pain; or any other fixed principle founded on former experience; and it is not unreasonable to suppose that they will accumulate as fast as they have done. Upon this principle, the curve which the present debt described from the year 1727, is made to represent the rise of a new portion of debt, which will continue to increase till the year in which the old debt is fully paid off.*

The line on which this new portion will be reduced, by applying the million unalienably to

it, will be another part of the fame curve that reduced the original debt.

The amount of this future debt is represented by the part that is stained of a pale red, and the deep red represents a second increase of debt, which, by the operation of the same cause, will be accumulated while the other is paying off. The line therefore which in all probability may be pretty nearly the real one in which the debt will be diminished, is the dotted line represented passing over the extremities of the quantities. To say that this is the true line,

The year 1727 is taken, because twelve years of peace followed it, which is more than has an equal chance immediately to succeed the establishment of this fund. Tho' the debt did not arise in a regular curve line, yet a may be reduced to a pretty regular curve, and it is better to do it, both for accuracy and conveniency.

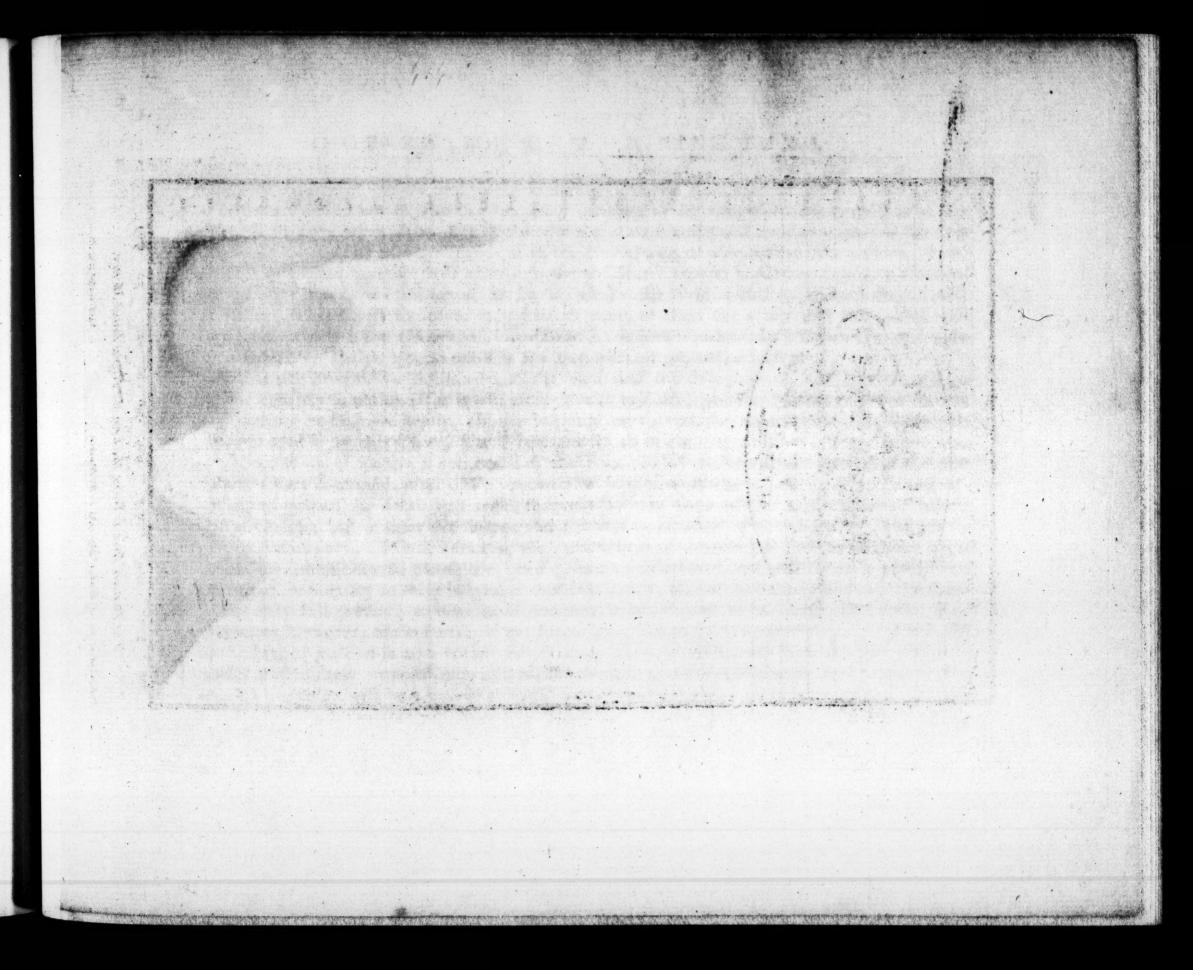
would be equally as useless as it would be false; the exact diminution is not only improbable to be found, on account of the two uncertain quantities that compose the original line of the payment of the present debt, but it is rendered still more uncertain by the increase of the new debt, the quantity of which depends upon the transactions of men perhaps yet unborn. That all these quantities together will enter into the problem is certain beyond any dispute; and as their exact amounts are unknown, we have stated them at what past experience makes most probable. This Chart therefore may be said truely to shew the nature and principle of the operation, which is the thing most essential to be known; and while it shews the principle

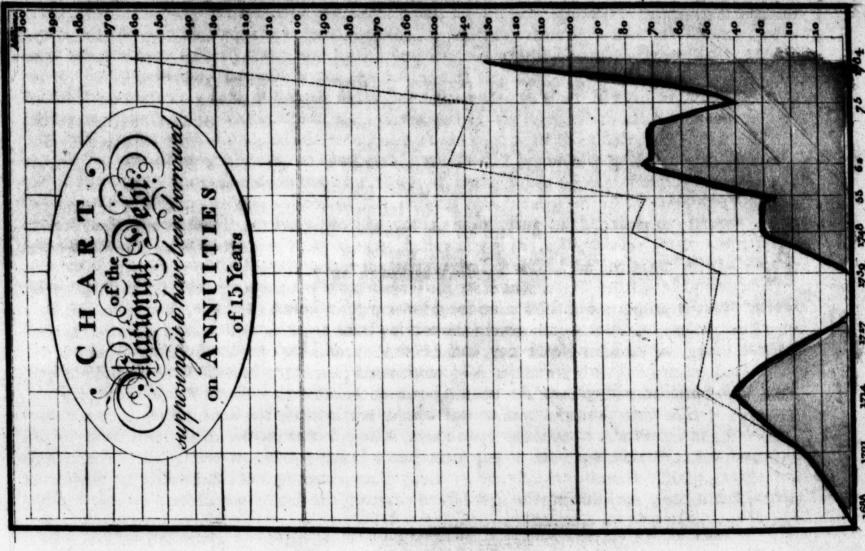
with accuracy, the particular amount is shewn with all probable exactness.

While this progressive diminution of the capital of the debt goes on, the interest will go on in a contrary direction; for it will increase with rapidity, and the burthens of the subject will continue to be more heavy, 'till the last moment that all the debt is paid off; by which time, according to this Chart, it will be annually about eighteen millions: thus, 9,200,000 +1,000,000+3,500,000+2,500,000=18,200,000. This is reckoning the interest of the new debt at a very reasonable rate. We ventured to suppose that the insufficiency of former attempts to pay off the debt, had arisen from the political security that it is supposed to afford to the Crown; but it does not appear that it will be an affair of fuch rapidity as needs to give any uneafiness. It is certain that the government of England is such as to make it neceffary for the minister to please the people; and ministers have not unfrequently owed some degree of popularity to their infignificant endeavours to reduce the debt. Whether the same fystem may still prevail, or whether it does not, those who are in the secret know best. Appearances, however, are in favour of the supposition that the plan is not changed; for unequal as the funded million is to a speedy reduction of the debt, it has not been thought proper to render it absolutely impossible to alienate it; but the minister who does venture to apply it to another purpose, will be a traitor to his King, whatever he may be to his country. OBSER-

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not a adoption, the northealth and the most be sterned to be a proposed to the Will the rais progred to dimension of the capital of the dek goes on, the harrest will go on his contract direction; for it well dereste with supplier, hand the bartlene of the fabiech substantiage to here a nearly. 'all the half montage thereal the debarg paid off; by which clays, occordists to this Chart, it will be acadeally about engleteen untilines; thus, a concord - + 1; oco. ogo + 1; cos oco - 2, cod, coc - 1 . dece con. This is reakaning the inter-frait the men detroit, a very repositioners. We required to formate that the infutionity of former arbroken or the true and and the first probability of the probability of the first few first few and the to the trought but it does not appear toke it will because their of feels mention as needs to care and cheannels. It is certain that the stoyement of lingland is lines as abounded it see cation that the minister to picted the peer to said thatiarre were anticquality and one derived of a pulleting to refer affirming the derived reserved and the deliber of Wheeliston from Property and the country of a desired to the country with a wind of the country with the grant case, becoverer, are in fixed, of the fugue fillouclest the plant more charged of the interior as the funded million is to a breat reduced that the delict, it has not been thought a mounte stater it according an moduble to align to it albert the middless who shot mestar to apply it to accepted by roofe will be a third of the Kaper, whatever begun to bid sooners . OHERR.





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ON THE AMOUNT OF THE DEBT,

Supposing it had been Borrowed on Annuities of Fifteen Years.

TT was before advanced as a fact, that the method of borrowing money for a certain number of years, on annuities, as it was called, was better for a nation than perpetual loans.

This Chart is intended as a visible proof of the affertion.

The period of fifteen years, which we have chosen, is but a very short one, perhaps rather shorter than is proper; but the reason for adopting it in this Chart was, that upon annuities of fifteen years, loans are worth nearly about double the legal interest; and therefore the proportion being the most simple of any, is the best for reasoning upon. Another thing is, that as we are seldom blest with fifteen years of continued peace, the best thing that could happen is, for the annuities of one war to be falling in at the time that the debts of another are incurred. If this were the case, a new war would not increase the debt, unless it were more expensive than the former one; and even then, it would only incease it by the excess of the expence of the second war. If at any time peace lasted for fifteen years, the debts, however great, would then be entirely at an end. The advantages of this mode of borrowing are not felt at first; for, during the first fifteen years of the debt it would be a double burden, but ever after that it would begin to be less and less. Thus from the year 1688 'till the year 1703 the interest would have been double; in the year 1720 it would have been neither more nor less than it really was; and by the year 1730 it would be ended altogether. When the war in 1739 began, the debt began again also; and tho' interest, counting at ten per cent. would have risen very fast, it would never have amounted to what it was, according to the perpetual system, 'till within a few years of the end of the American war; and at this present moment we should pay rather more than we do (not with the funded million and all); but in the year ninety, that is, in sour years, we should begin to pay less, at the rate of one million per annum; and in the year 1799, if there arose no new war, we should not have a single farthing to pay, instead of ten millions two bundred thousand pounds, which we shall have to pay annually for sixty years to come, amounting in that time to the sum of six bundred and twelve millions.

This is not more mortifying than it is perfectly true; it would be an infult to the under-

standings of men to insist upon the conclusion from these facts.

It may be worth while to consider from what motives a nation composed of individuals, rich, provident, and industrious, in their private capacity, could, with eyes open, run into so ruinous a snare; how they could be persuaded and led into a scheme so evidently bad,

and when another evidently better lay before them.

The original cause no doubt existed in the constitution. The ministers of England, without sufficient virtue to stand boldly forth, and lay on heavy taxes that were temporary, preferred their own popularity to the prosperity of their country. A few endeavours to a small amount only confirm their guilt, because they prove their opinion to have favoured the mode which they did not pursue.

The

The arts practifed on the turf are not more various or more vile, than the methods used by ministers to manage the humours of the English nation. Their dispositions have been uniformly studied, their passions for war or peace stirred up, or laid asseep, with most ingenious attention and success. The bulk of the money has been borrowed on perpetuity, to serve the minister, and a small and insignificant portion on annuities, to please the people.

In no case can temporary shifts and constant prosperity be united and reconciled; it is as impossible as to unite the hard qualities of a diamond and the soft ones of lead in the same piece of matter. The temporary ease that borrowing on perpetuity affords, is as irreconcileable with the standing prosperity of a nation. It is a temporary shift, unworthy of an intelligent and an industrious people. Perhaps when men become convinced (tho' it is difficult to convince mankind of what is not quite agreeable) that want of foresight has been the cause of our present debt, and that the temporary purposes of a minister are different from the interests of the Crown and of the people, they may look a little more attentively at their own interest, and insist upon wifer modes of conducting affairs of finance, as they have a debt of two hundred and forty-six millions, in proof of the necessity of better measures.

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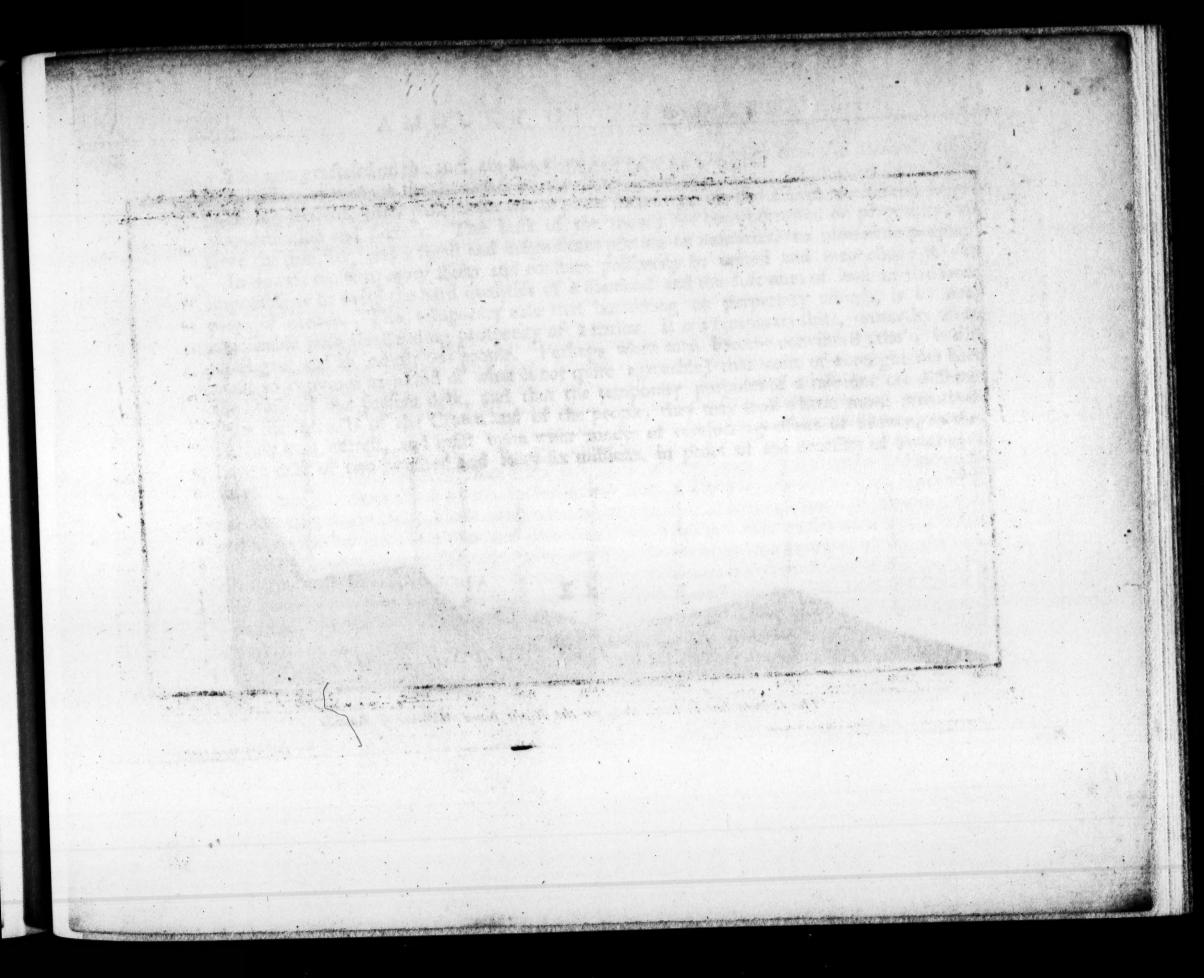
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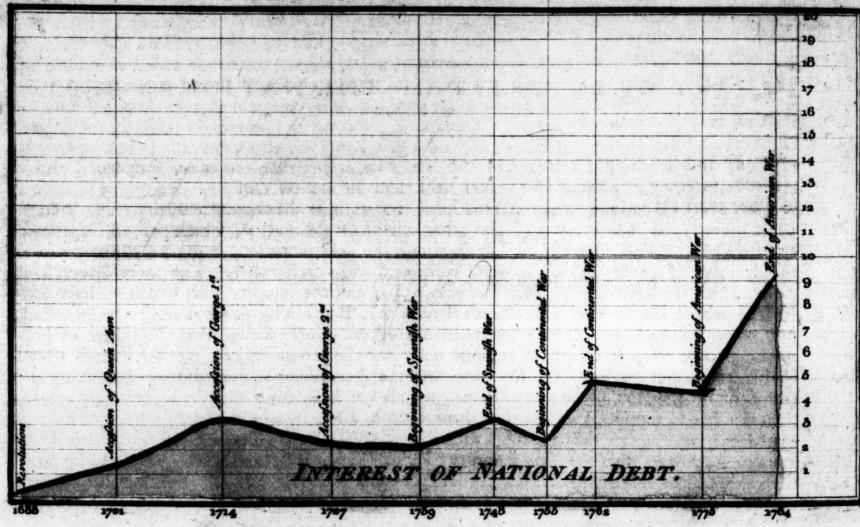
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. Interest of the NATIONAL DEBT from the Revolution.



The Bottom line is Years, those on the Right hand Millions of Pounds.

Published as the Act direct, 11' New 1986 by W. Plande

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is sood over the configuration of a reignite and it menaged fiftern, or to admire the folly or stine went of principle of those who a unit is of those who executed to enfortunate a february. But another object of more importante is the aim. The accuracy of mee calculation is laid and a the more minute pairs and the confequences are patied over, that the attention of that many minute pairs and the confequences are patied over, that the

CHART OF INTEREST OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.

TIBITE line in which the interest of the debt rises, represents the annual expences, and is

This is in real and not in nominal millions; and as it is the money annually paid, it compares more readily and easily with the other affairs of the nation, which are all in annual transactions. Besides shewing the line in which the debt increased, it gives a distinct idea of the duration of peace, as well as war, compared with each other. The short intervals of peace which we have enjoyed since the year 1739, and the rapidity with which we have contracted debt in the time of war, affords a certainty, that a long peace is not to be expected, nor a long war endured. The whole of this progress clearly shews, that the system of borrowing, never to pay, is a most ruinous one; for the terms we now pay for interest would enable us to carry on our wars for ever, without borrowing one farthing. Supposing the real debt of England to be 250 millions, which has been contracted in ninety-eight years, then it is fair to suppose, that less than three millions annually would have supplied and paid all expences. As the case now is, the 250 millions are to pay. The interest already paid has amounted to more than that sum; and the annual expence is, and will continue to be more than three times that sum. Let it not be conceived that the case is stated thus, in order to

brood over the consequences of a ruinous and ill managed system, or to admire the folly or the want of principle of those who conceived, or of those who executed so unfortunate a scheme. But another object of more importance is the aim. The accuracy of nice calculation is laid aside; the more minute parts and the consequences are passed over, that the attention of all ranks and denominations of men may be called to this single affertion—That through the means of a Funding System we pay yearly more than three times the money that would be necessary to defray the expences of the wars for which the debts were contrasted; that we have already paid more than the whole debt; and that we must continue to pay.—That with revenues nearly equal to what Rome possessed in its greatest glory, we are not possessed of an unappropriated farthing; and that we cannot defend ourselves, or protect our property, without launching deeper into debt and increasing our missfortunes. Let us now turn from the prospect of what is past to the probable one that is to come.

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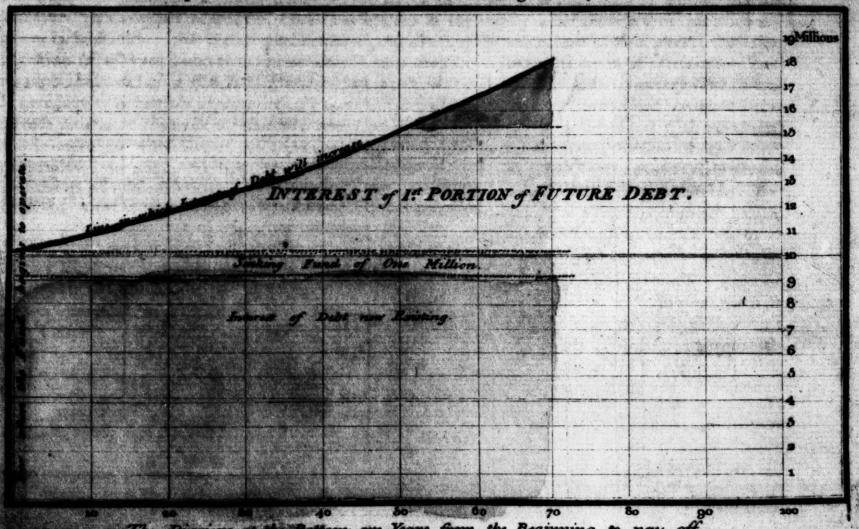
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Chart of probable Increase of INTEREST during the Payment of the DEBT.



The Divisions at the Bottom are Years from the Beginning to pay off.

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ON THE

PROBABLE INCREASE OF THE INTEREST OF DEBT.

THIS Chart makes a figure among the other affairs of the nation, not unlike the figure of Death in Holbein's picture. It is formidable, and threatens destruction to the whole

group, of which it makes a part.*

If the review of our past debt did not afford a pleasing object for the eye, this future prospect is not calculated for its relief. There is indeed one comfort, that it possibly may not happen. There is a possibility that there may be no more war for sifty years to come, and that we may be allowed to pay our annual ten millions in peace, till the debt is extinct; and this possibility is the only ground on which we have to rest our wearied attention; for, according to probability, the line in which it is here represented as increasing, is the one that will take place. This is the line of interest, supposing the old debt to diminish, and the new to increase, in the manner represented in the Chart of the operation of a Sinking Fund of an unalienable Million.

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^{*} The famous picture of Hans Holbein, called the Dance of Death, in the fore-ground of which is Henry the Fourth of France in the midst of his courtiers, and the figure of Death aiming a dart at that illustrious monarch.

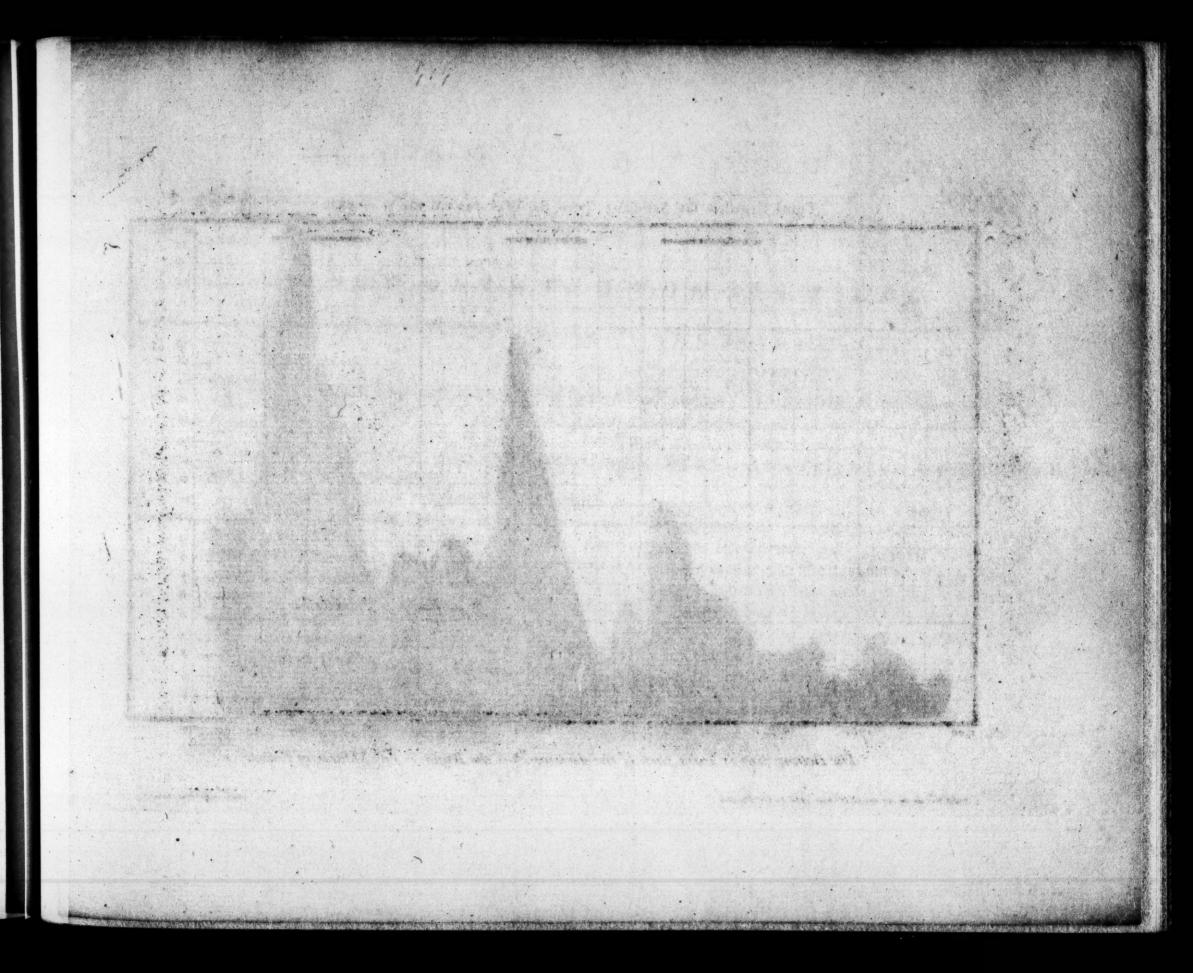
The part stained of a blue colour, is the interest of the present debt, which will continue the same till the whole is paid. The yellow represents the annual million; and the pale red is the interest of the first portion of new debt, as the deep red is that of the second. During the whole of this time, that is, from the beginning to the end of the paying off, we shall pay about one thousand and fifty millions of pounds. We have paid already about three hundred millions, which make in all above thirteen bundred millions, in one hundred and seventy years. Let us also consider how much actual money there will have been borrowed and used in that time, and we shall find it little more than one-fourth of the sum that has been paid. Already we have borrowed and used one hundred and eighty real millions. In . the time of paying that off, we shall, according to the supposition, borrow 160 millions more; that is, in all 340 millions, which is a little more only than one-fourth of the whole paid. And these 340 millions would have paid the expences of our wars, if we had not enjoyed the conveniency, and suffered the evil attending loans of the fort that we have contracted. Let us now confider how much we should have had to pay upon annuities of fifteen years. As they do not continually increase like the others, and the present debt would be at an end in thirteen years, it would begin again, and go on as it has done; and in that case, in feventy years more it would amount, in all, to 525 millions, which is a great fum indeed, but not half what it will be by perpetual loans; it would fave 775 millions. This is not going accurately to work; but if we did go as accurately as possible, the conclusion would be the same that it is, with this difference, that it would be so difficult to get at clearly and distinctly, that it would not be generally read at all; and if the knowledge of the subject continued to be confined to a few, the national affairs might still be mismanaged in the fame manner that they have been, for the advantage of the few, and at the expence of the many. This

This Chart, however, was only meant to shew us what burthens we may expect to endure, and to point out the great evil of perpetual loans; a piece of knowledge which cannot be too much studied, or too universally diffused; though it would be expecting too much, to imagine that the modes of borrowing money will be altered, in consequence of any thing that may be said upon the subject by an individual.

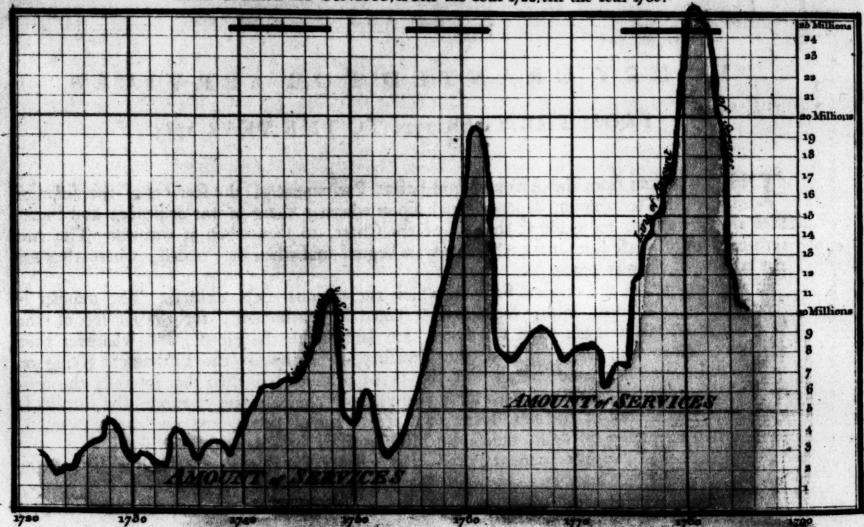
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Total Granted for Services, from the Year 1722, till the Year 1785.



The Bottom line is Years, each of the divisions on the Right, is one Million of Pounds

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the part of the interest and the first it was in the year 1720; which a constant to the first of the first of

MONEY GRANTED FOR SERVICES,

FROM THE YEAR 1722 TO THE YEAR 1783.

THIS is taken from the Accounts laid before Parliament of the services of the different years. The amount depends much upon whether there is war or peace; and therefore the black lines are made at the top of the Chart, to shew when it was war. The two terminations of these lines mark when the wars began, and when they ended; where they are not continued, it was peace.

These grants are the original form in which the national debt existed. The manner is shortly thus: Troops, ships, &c. are first voted by Parliament, for the service of the year, and estimates made from the votes, are laid before the House, and whatever they amount to more than the receipts of the Treasury, is borrowed; the Parliament laying on taxes to the amount of the interest. If the taxes produce less than that interest, the desiciency is supplied by additional ones next year; and if they amount to more, the surplus is applied to the interest of the next loan; or if it is time of peace, and no loan is wanted, it is applied to paying off debt, unless the Minister finds some better use for it.

The amount of supplies increases, upon the whole; for though they fall at the ends of

wars, yet they do not feem to return to their usual state.

M m

The

The value of money is not the same that it was in the year 1720: this is a good reason for part of that increase. And we are less careful to avoid expence: that is a bad reason for the remainder of that increase.

The actual amount is taken from the Accounts that are laid before the House of Commons, of last year's expence; and the termination of that line which is for the year 1785, is the Account now lying on the table of the House. It is an unexampled amount in time of peace, and expences seem to increase at a great tate. Whoever, indeed, will look into the Accounts, will find that they grow larger very rapidly; that is, they consist of a greater number of articles than they used to do; and unless next year is much less than this, we shall find there will be no surplus to fund for the payment of our national debt.

years. If he amount depends thuch upon which there is war, or peace; and there fore the black lines are made at the top of the Chart to they when it was war. The two terminations of these lines mark when the wars began, and when they called; where they are not evaluated, it was neace.

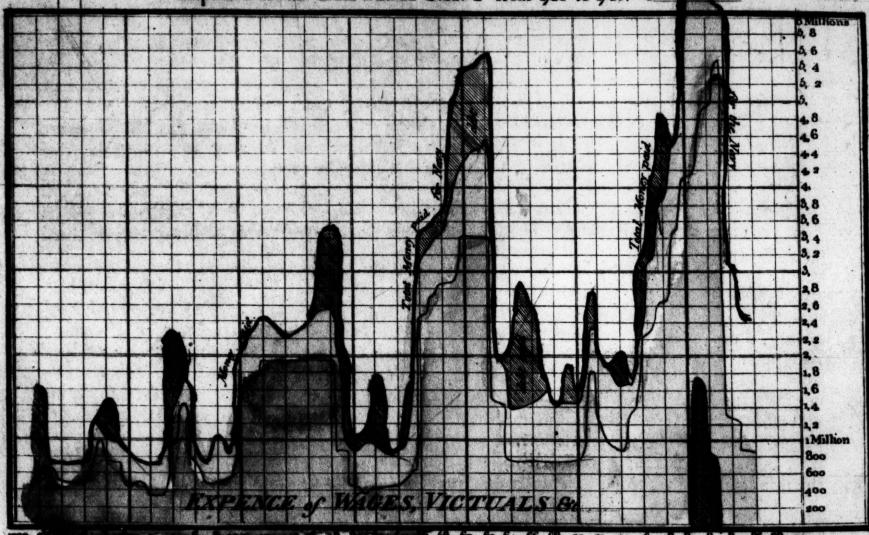
The parties are the original form in which the rational debt exists. The marner is shortly time: Troops, ships, &c. are first voted by Parliament, an the service or the year, and estimates made from the votes, are laid tender the item, and whateve they are more that the mane in a superior of the same as the reacipa, and Treascry, a borrowed; the advances the interest, the cash cash is superior is supplied to additional ones next war; and if they amount a more, the simple applied to the interest of the next tour; or if it is time of peace, a done loan is respective as possest to prove of the interest of the interest of the whole; some better one for it.

for they do not feem to return to their uffel flate.

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The Bottom line is Years, that on the Right hand L100,000 each division.

Published as the Act directs, It May 1786, by W. Playlair .

Neele sculp 382, Strand, London

ON THE

EXPENDITURE OF THE NAVY.

THE blue part of this (which is for maintenance, tare and wear) increases and diminishes in proportion to the number of men employed; so that it marks the strength, as well as the expence of the Navy. The upper line measures the whole expenditure on the Navy account, but it does not go in the actual shape in which the expences were contracted. The dark part is navy debt, paid up in these years, tho' it was contracted the years preceding. This makes a considerable part of the services in the former Chart, and rises the same years that it rises, tho' not exactly in the same proportion. This also is taken from the accounts of estimates laid before Parliament; and it must be allowed that it gives a very distinct notion of the manner in which our naval affairs increased or diminished, both with regard to men and money. From the nature of the Navy, the extraordinaries, as they are called, must vary much in different years. The expence of building ships is great, and their sate when built, uncertain; which has occasioned an impossibility of estimating the expence before hand; but paying in navy bills, prevents that necessity, and also prevents Parliament from having that controus over the disbursements that it has over the other branches of public expenditure.

OBSER-

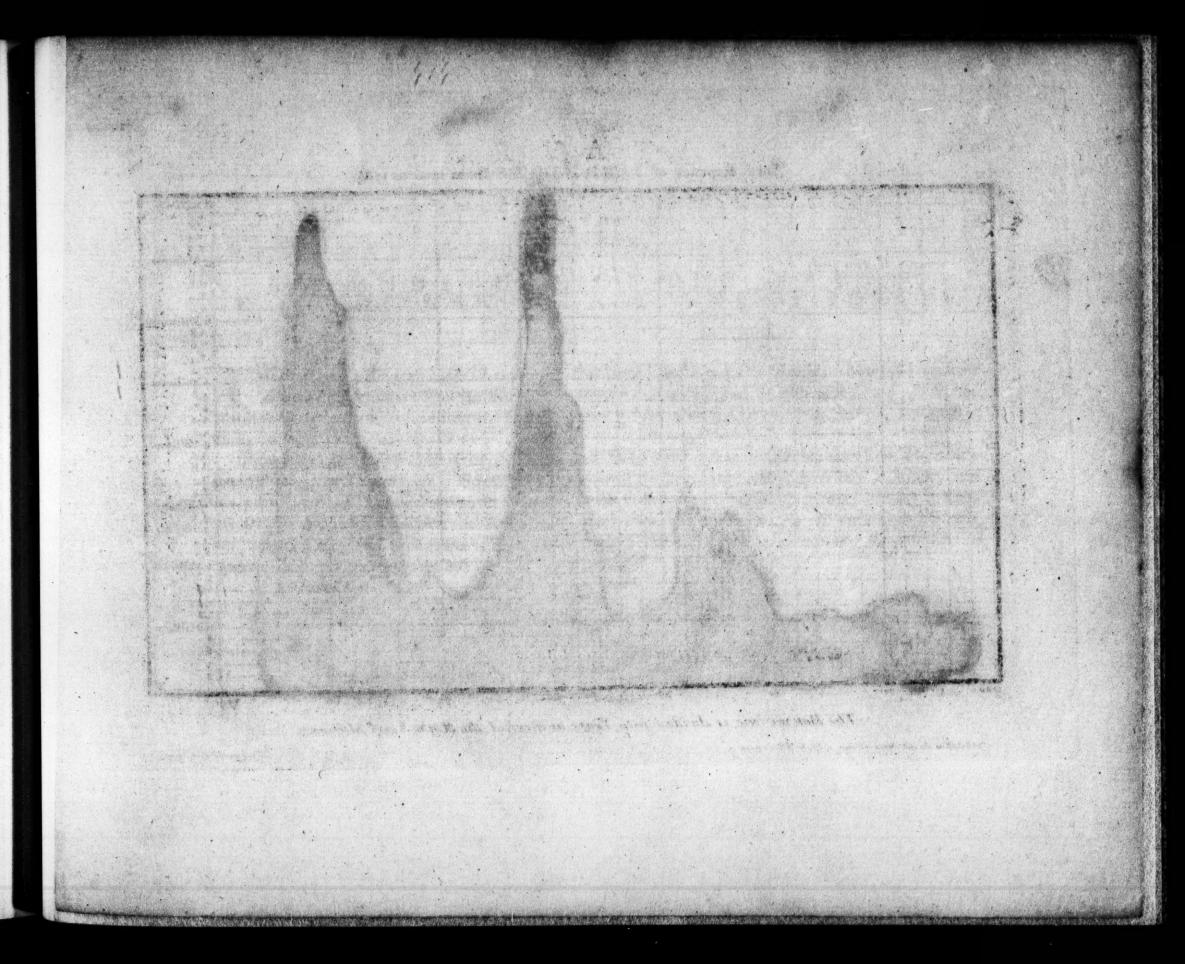
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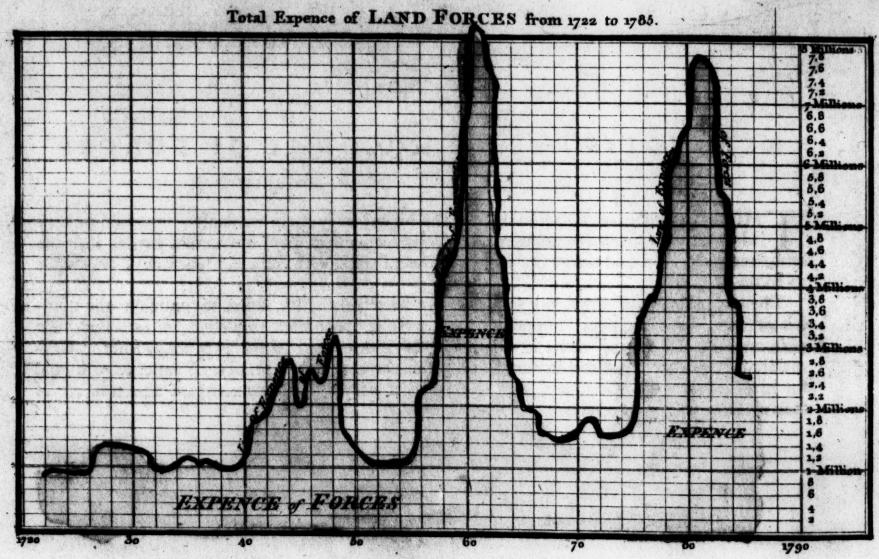
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EXPENDITURE OF THE NAVY

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The Bottom line is divided into Years as marked, the Right hand Millions.

Published as the Ace direct It June 1786, by W. Playfair .

Neels sculp! 362 Swand.

OBSERVATIONS

ONTHE

EXPENDITURES ON ACCOUNT OF FORCES.

THIS Chart rifes and falls like that of the Navy, only more suddenly. It would be very desireable to know the numbers of troops retained in pay at different times; but the estimates and papers laid before the House, do not state it with sufficient accuracy, to enable us to do that.

The expenditures of the Army seem to have been very great, when we consider the number of men, and their pay. Supposing there were 100,000 men employed, at 4s. a day, one with another, officers and men, it would not have amounted to the expence, either in Germany, or during the last war in America.* But the different expences, of varieties of kinds, for hired troops from Germany, &c. &c. make it very difficult to compare the number of men with the money expended.

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OBSER-

* It would be £.7,300,000.

OBSERVATIONS

THT NO

EXPENDITURES ON ACCOUNT OF FORCES.

"HIS Chart rifes and falls like that of the Navy, only more fuddenly. It would be very defineable to know the numbers of troops recaised in pay at different times; but the ethinates and papers laid before the Floufe, do not fine it with fufficient accuracy, to enable us to do that.

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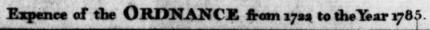
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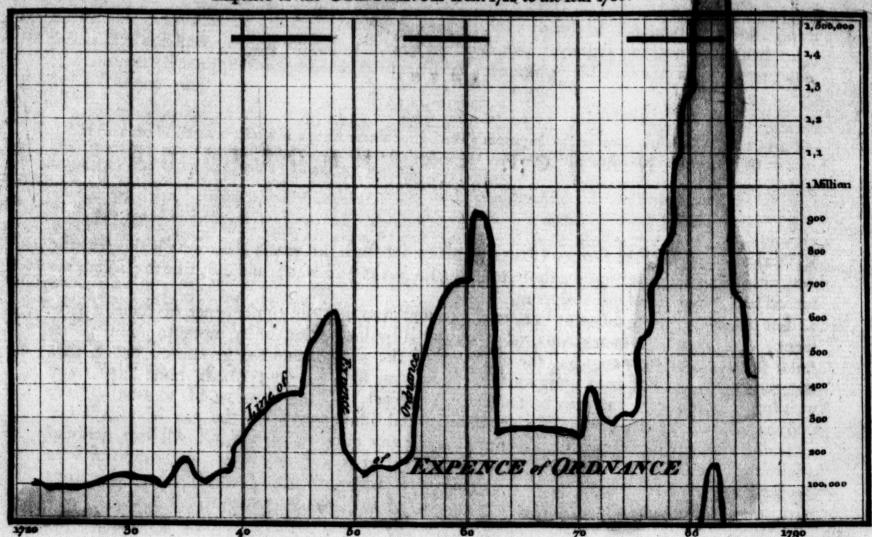
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OBSERVATION THAN WATER HEDDITURE.

man do his duty without hipplating for a reward. The people of England let things go on percently, and look on very totally, all they are fired out; then they get into a rage and very, and turn out their oppositors. This is their apple of reforming public abuses, and it is, perhaps, as good as any other.

* It seems to be like the affairs in a green man's house, hadly managed. The cook wastes in the kitchen, became the burger greenging is frend; We through oxyow the engaged artiched wistes en malounament, me better to four a like indulgency.

THIS, like the three former Charts, is made out from the yearly Accounts laid before the House of Commons; like those too, it rises in time of war; and has, like the m, not returned to its former low establishment.

The people, in every different line, are interested in raising the consequence of their department; and example is contageous, when seconded by inclination or by interest. This particular subject has lately engaged the attention of the nation, and has given us a proof, that the general opinion of men is against depending on fortifications; which must have more weight than any thing that can be said on the subject. There seems to be something very odd in the increase of expence of the different establishments, when the pay of men is not increased, and when there does not appear to be any good reason for it. All our national assairs seem wearing to one point, and they will get at it in time, unless some minister who has sufficient fortitude and virtue to do right, with the considence of the people for his support, makes a fair stand, and turns the current of extravagant expence, by making every

142 OBSERVATIONS ON THE ORDNANCE EXPENDITURE.

man do his duty without stipulating for a reward.* The people of England let things go on peaceably, and look on very tamely, 'till they are tired out; then they get into a rage and fury, and turn out their oppressors. This is their mode of reforming public abuses, and it is, perhaps, as good as any other.

* It feems to be like the affairs in a great man's house, badly managed. The cook wastes in the kitchen, because the butier entertains his friends; the soptmen follow the example; and the housekeeper winks at mismanagement, the better to secure a like indulgence:

I take of Commons; like those former Charts, is made out from the yearly Accounts hid before the fixed of Commons; like those too, it rifes in time of war; and has, like them, not returned to its former low of ablishment.

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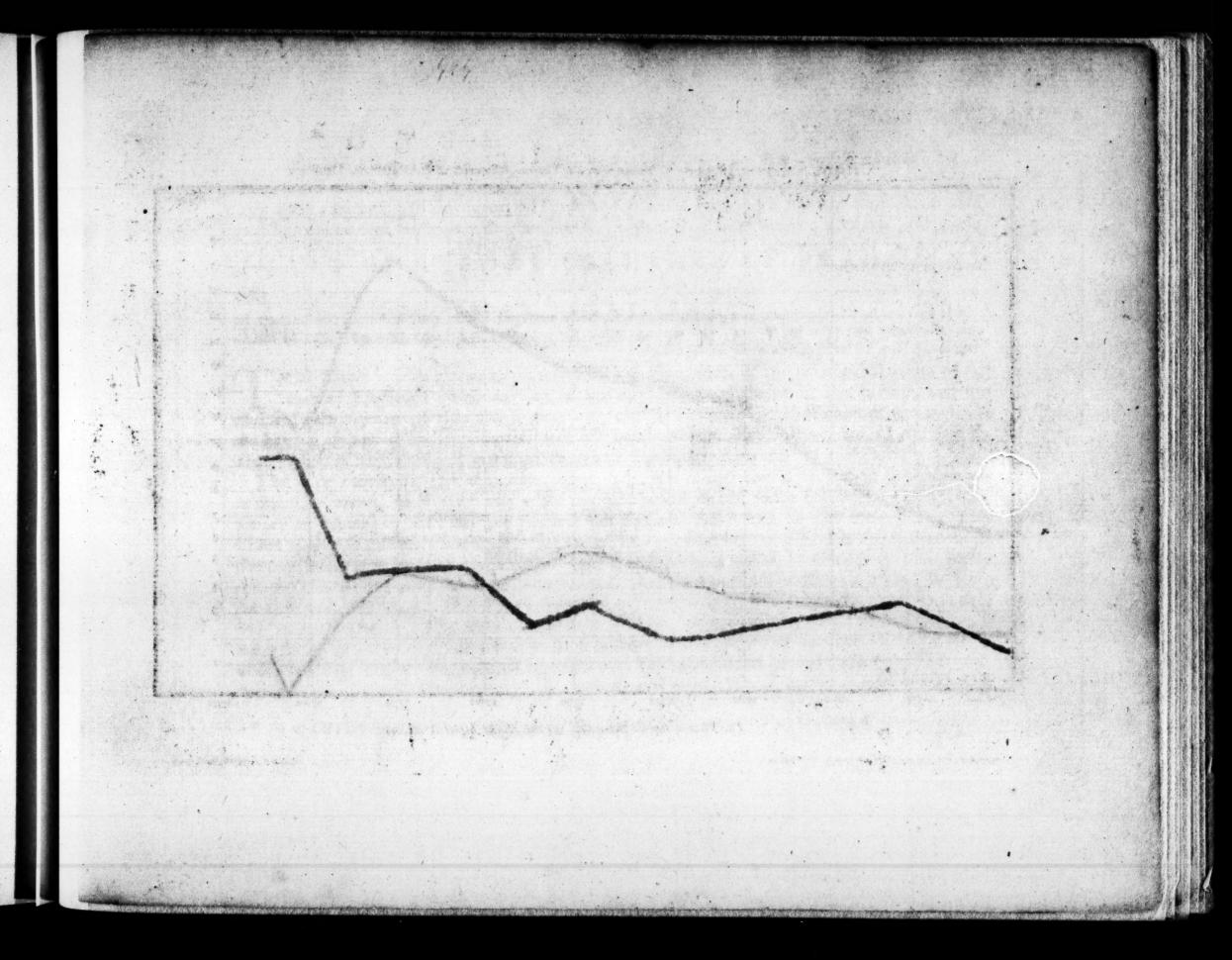
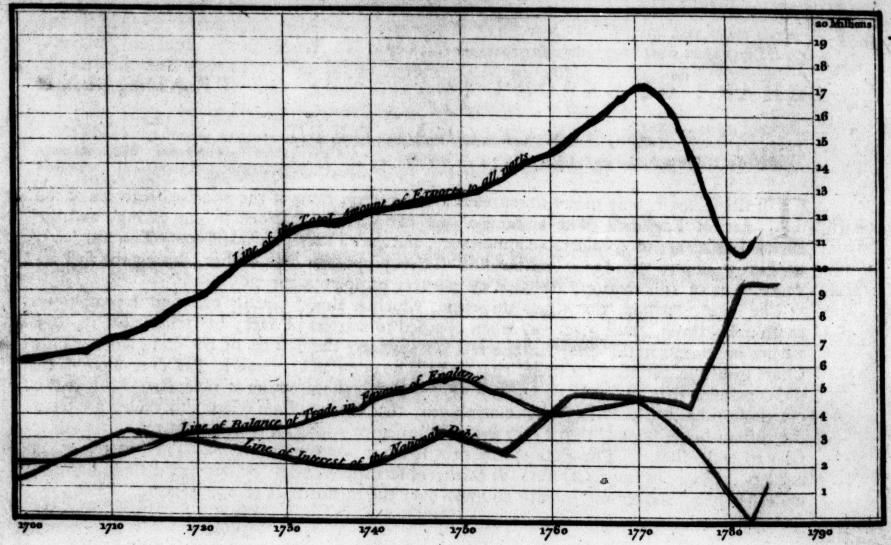


CHART of amount of Exports of Balance in our Favour, & Interest of NATIONAL DEBT.



The Bottom line is Years, that on the Right hand Millions ...

Published as the Act directs, 2. " July 1786, by W" Play fair

Neste orule! Site Smind London

ONTHE

CHART OF EXPORTS, BALANCE OF TRADE, AND NATIONAL DEBT.

THIS Chart is only meant to represent, in one view, some of the principal features of the state of England. The amount of our exports, the balance in our favour, and the national debt, are of considerable importance, and have a natural kind of connection; at least, we have reason to wish for a continuance of that proportion, which has, during the first seventy years of this century, attended us in a very prosperous career.

The trite reflection, that times are worse, which is almost equally common in prosperous as unlucky times, must give way when opposed to matters of fact; but unfortunately, they are not opponents in this case, and the fact but warrants the justice of the complaint. This Chart speaks so distinctly for itself, that there is no occasion for remark. Let every man draw the conclusion that his own judgement suggests, that is the intention of rendering visible to the eye those subjects; only let it be remembered, that the two lines relating to trade, are from the custom-house books, that if they are in some degree wrong, it is not in the proportion they bear to each other.* The state of the debt is exact, or very nearly so. This, therefore, is not a false but a true representation, as farther observations might be deemed an insult to the understanding, and an ungenerous triumph over the missortunes of our country.

O o Dublin,

At no time has there been any fettled proportion, but tolerably near, 'till the begining of last war,

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CHART OF EXPORTS BALANCE OF TRADE, AND

THIS Charles and the control of the

The rise welfilled that the area words, which is through equally continue an analysis of perspectively rise as a when opposed to make the of that, but unforther wy they are not opposed to make the consistency of the consis

" At no tione has there been any faced proportion, but selegably near, fall the begining of last other

I have been from home for sometime past, and did not receive your favour until yesterday, which prevented my giving an immediate answer.

I am much flattered by your approbation of the Revenue Charts formed on your Plan, and have not any objection to your making what use you please of them. They have not been offered to sale in Ireland, and sew copies distributed.

Be so good to let me know if you determine on publishing them. I will bring them up so far as the Accounts will admit, and send a copy over within a very short period after bearing from you.

Believe me, Sir, very truely, Your obliged bumble servant,

JAMES CORRY.

To William Playfair, Efq.

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JAMES CORRY.

To William Playfair, Est

THE RIGHT HONORABLE JOHN FOSTER,

SPEAKER OF THE HONORABLE THE HOUSE OF COMMONS OF IRELAND.

SIR,

THE liberty you were pleased to allow me of perusing some original Papers of your Grand Father, Mr. Burgh, of whose abilities in the station of Accountant-General the House of Commons have so frequently given the most honorable testimony, and who first reduced the Public Accounts into the form in which they have been ever since laid before Parliament, has enabled me to form the following Charts of the Revenue of Ireland, which I humbly presume to lay before you; submitting them with all possible respect and gratitude to your consideration.

I have the honor to be, SIR,
Your most dutiful,
And most devoted servant,

JAMES CORRY.

THE RICHT HONORABLE JOHN POSTER,

SPRAKER OF THE HONORABLE THE HOUSE OF COMMONS OF IRELAND.

51. 18

L'HE liberty you were pleased to allow me of perusing some original Papers of your Grand Falter. We Burkow, of whose abilities in the flation of Accountant-General the Fourier of Commons have so frequently given the most honorable testimons, and who first reduced the Pallie Accounts into the some in which they have been over the find before Paulianeut, has enabled me to form the following Charts of the Revenue of Ireland, which I hardly presume to lay income your release to the Revenue of Ireland, which I hardly presume to lay income your release your respect and granted to your confidence your release.

I have the Honor to be, Sir, Your mod during,... And most devoked formur,

LAMES COLUE

On infpecting any one of shele Courts at early in a fulficient differed imprestion will be anale to remain will be a second remain will be a

REVENUE OF THE LAND.

THE following Charts of Revenue are done after the manner of Mr. PLAYFAIR'S Charts of Trade, and their uses are well described in the following extracts from the preface to his work.

document and another of the called the particular of which the electric bank as said and

"The giving form and shape to what otherwise would only have been an abstract idea, has in many cases been attended with much advantage; it has often rendered easy and accurate

" a conception that was imperfect in itself, and acquired with difficulty.

"Information that is imperfectly acquired is generally as imperfectly retained; and a man "who has carefully investigated a printed table finds, when done, that he has only a very faint and partial idea of what he has read, and that like a figure imprinted on fand it is soon totally erased and defaced.

"The amount of transactions in money are capable of being as easily represented in drawing as any part of space, or as the face of a country, though 'till now it has not been at-

" tempted.

"These Charts were made on that principle; and while they give the most simple and distinct idea, they are as near perfect accuracy as is any way useful. Though pence and farthings are neglected, and larger sums are not well defined, yet still they are sufficiently

" accurate.

"On inspecting any one of these Charts attentively, a sufficient distinct impression will be made to remain unimpaired for a considerable time, and the idea which does remain will be a

" complete one, at once including the duration and the amount.

"Men of great rank or active business can only pay attention to general outlines, nor is attention to particulars of use any farther than as they give a general information; and it
is hoped, that with the affistance of these Charts, such information will be got, without
the fatigue and trouble of studying the particulars of which they are composed."

CHART of the REVENUE collected by the COMMISSIONERS of CUSTOMS and EXCISE.

need exist the world ends have been

The information contained in this Chart, antecedent to printing the public accounts in the year 1731, has been obtained from the original papers of Mr. Burgh, formerly Accountant-General, from which he framed the official returns made by him to Parliament, and from the returns made by his successor. The public accounts since the time of their being printed,

The antient revenue of the Crown, payable by

The antient revenue of the Crown, payable by prescription, or by common law, and without any express grant by act of Parliament, is composed of crown rents, composition rents, prizage, light-house duties, and casual revenue, consisting of sines, seizures, and forfeitures. The revenues from customs inwards and outwards, inland and import excise, hearth-money, quit-rents, and licences for selling ale, beer, wine and strong waters, arise from express statutes; the produce of all these branches of the revenue is vested in the King, his heirs and successors, for ever, from whence it is called the King's Hereditary Revenue, and all such parts thereof as do not arise from common law or the statute of Henry the Seventh, were granted for ever in the reign of Charles the Second.

Soon

Soon after the last of these perpetual grants were made, the Parliament was dissolved, and during the space of twenty-six years no Parliament sat in Ireland until the year 1692, when the increase of the civil and military establishments, and other charges of Government, having considerably exceeded the produce of the hereditary revenue, the Crown sound it necessary to call upon Parliament for further supplies, which being granted on arricles subject at the time to hereditary duties, were called ADDITIONAL DUTIES, and their produce was given for one, two, or three years only, and renewed every session, without surther extension, until after the rebellion in 1715, when the Commons of Ireland passed a vote of credit for the sum of \$50,000, to enable his Majesty to put the kingdom into a posture of defence against the invasion with which it was then threatened. This vote of credit is considered as the origin of a national debt in this kingdom, and as it was to be raised by loan, bearing an annual interest, certain duties were afterwards granted to defray that interest and sink the principal; these duties have increased or decreased from time to time as the debt has risen or fallen, and are distinguished in the public accounts under the title of Loan Duties.

Exclusive of these funds, there are other additional duties granted and appropriated for the encouragement of arts and sciences, for the promoting and extending trade and industry, and for the general improvement of the country. The produce of these Appropriated Duties are not applicable to any services of Government, but must be applied to the parti-

cular uses to which they are directed by Parliament and and amuliay in

These several branches of revenue are collected by the Commissioners of Customs and Excise, under the powers and authorities described in acts passed in the reign of Charles the Second, and several subsequent acts; except some very small part of the quit-rents and casual revenue, paid by the subject directly into the Treasury, and except the duties on home-made wrought plate appropriated to inland navigation.

Qq

The

The Expence of Collection varies from a number of causes, arising from the fuctuation

of trade, the increase of taxes, and the many impositions attempted, in order to evade them. The whole expence of it, under the title of management, with all drawbacks of hereditary duties, and all such bounties as are from time to time charged upon the revenue at large, are defrayed out of the hereditary revenue only, and their amount is described by a line drawn through the space representing the hereditary revenue: this line points out to the eye by the breadth between it and the bottom line of the Chart, what proportion of that revenue is stopped for those purposes in its transit to the Treasury. To this Chart is added a small table on the same scale of years, stating by a line the rate which the expence of collection of the rotal gross revenues under the management of the Commissioners, bears to the revenue collected by them, and which has varied from 8 to 18 per cent. and was about 15 per cent. in the last years of this Chart 1785 - wifib and box and let to make

CHART of the REVENUE collected by the COMMISSIONERS of STAMP DUTIES.

The information contained in this Chart has been obtained from the Comptroller's books in the Stamp Office; and it is to be observed, that in the expence of collection the sums in advance for distributing stamped vellum, parchment, and paper, and also the allowance of discount to purchasers of stamps of the value of £ 10 and upwards, are not included.

The STAMP DUTIES are certain rates, impositions and charges paid for marking and stamping vellum, parchment and paper, on which are engrossed, written or printed, certain articles, matters or things particularly described by law, and are collected by Commissioners appointed by the Lord Lieutenant or other chief governor, and by them paid into the Treasury, in aid of the ordinary revenue.

CHART

CHART of the REVENUE and EXPENCES of the NATION.

The annual revenue or income of the nation, applicable to the services of Government, confists of the net produce of the hereditary revenue and additional duties, together with the poundage and pells see, antient salaries, and the tax of four shillings in the pound on Absentees. The annual expences are composed of the net charge of the civil and military establishments, and sundry other charges contained in the public accounts, under the title of extraordinaries.

In this comparative state of the annual public revenue and public expences, all receipts and payments on account of annuities, loans, lotteries, or any borrowed money whatsoever, are omitted; likewise the surplus of the duties appropriated to pay the interest and expences thereof, such surplus being set apart towards payment of the national debt; but the surplus of all imprest monies, being included in the extra charges, are deducted from the public expences.

CHART of the DEBT and CREDIT of the NATION.

The debt of the nation is stated from the vote of the House of Commons on the report of the Committee of Supply, and the credit is stated from the report of the Committee of Accounts. In the year 1773 there was raised by tontine £.265,000; in the year 1775 £.175,000; and in the year 1777 £.300,000, making in the whole the sum of £.740,000, which sum is not included in this Chart, as it was sunk by the subscribers in consideration of annuities, with benefit of survivorship, and the principal does not now remain a debt.

FINIS

154

CHART of the REVENUE and EXPENCES of the NATION.

The annual revenue or income of the nation, applicable to the fervices of Coverament, contents of the net produce of the hardicary revenue and additional duties, together with the poundage and palls fee, antient for aires, and the rex of reur fhillings in the poundons ablest tees. The annual expenses we composed of the net charge of the civil and military additionities, and fundry other charges contained in the public accounts, under the thice of expression distributions.

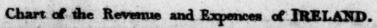
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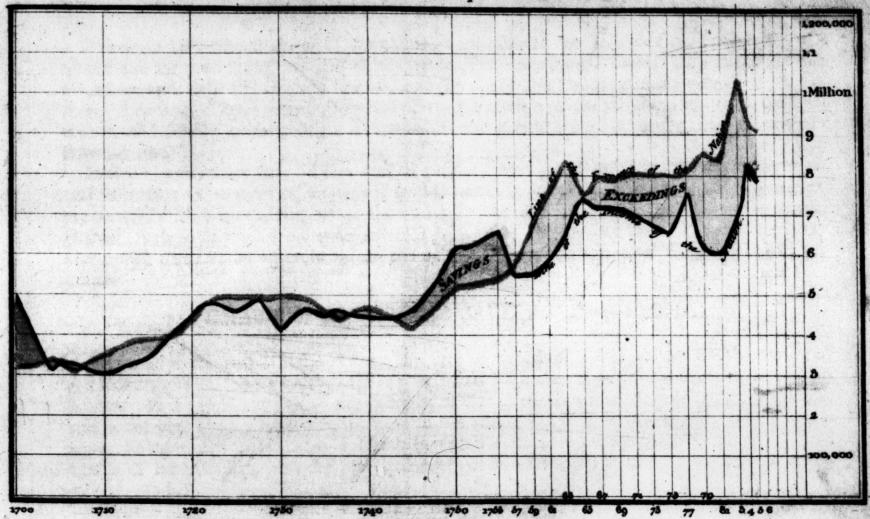
CHART of the DEBT and CREDIT of the NATIOM.

The dest of the nation is flated from the vote of the Monfe of Commons on the room of the Committee of Supply, and the sydiff is flated from the report of the Committee of Supply, and the sydiff is flated from the report of the Committee of Supply, and the sydiff is flated by souther flate, occil, a the year 1773 there was raifed by souther flate, occil, a the sydiff of flate occil, and the next included in the Chart, as it was funk by the subscribers in confidentian of flate, which benefit of furvive ship, and the principal does not now remain a determine.

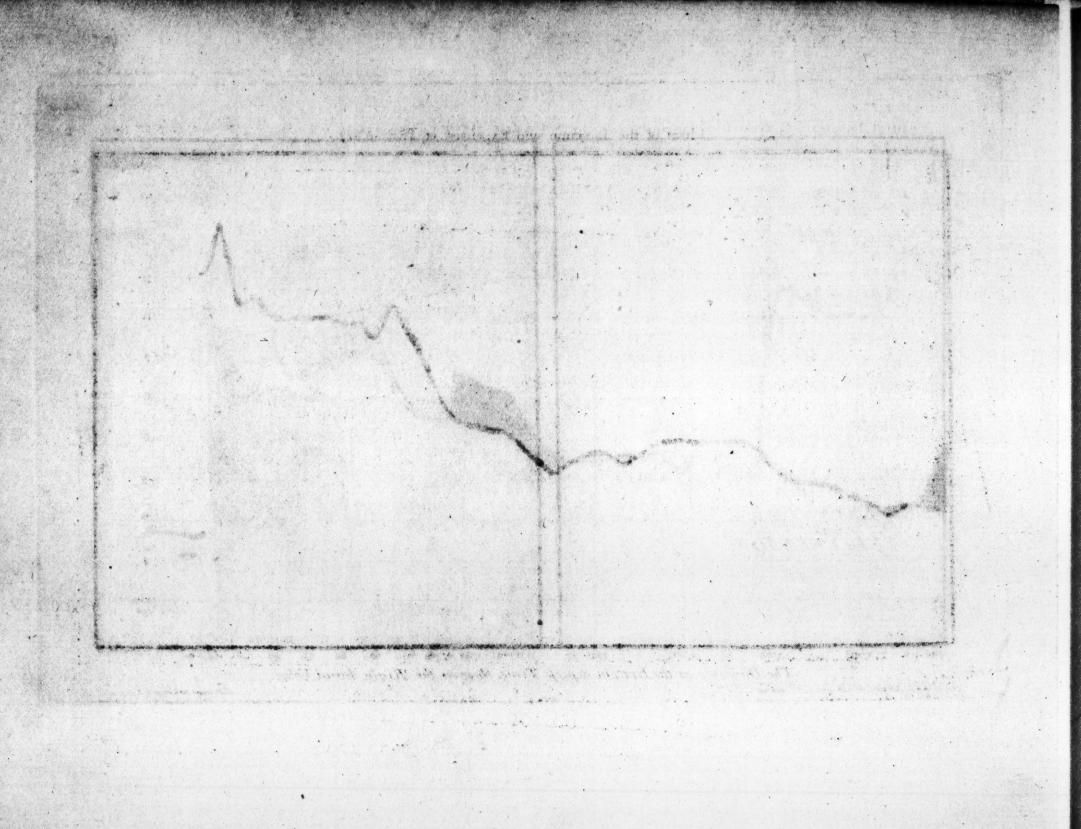
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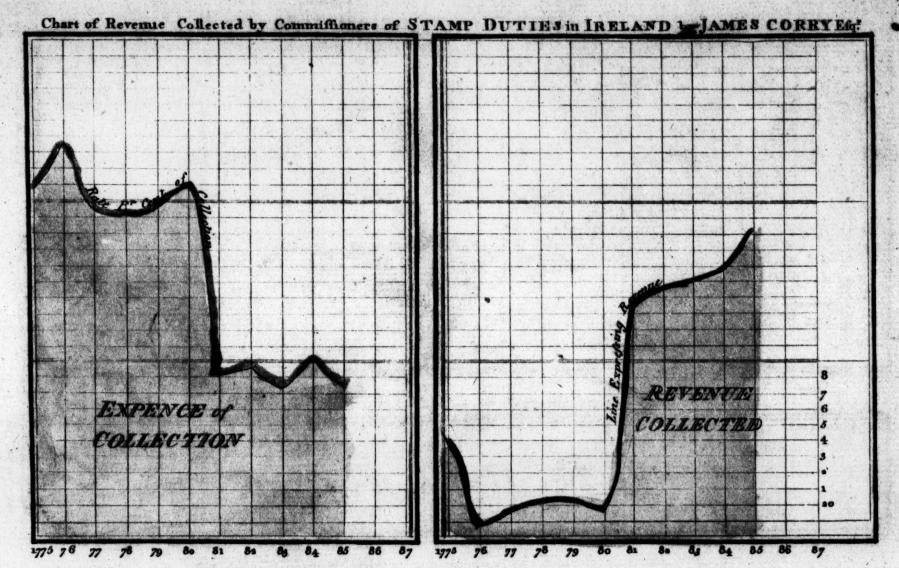






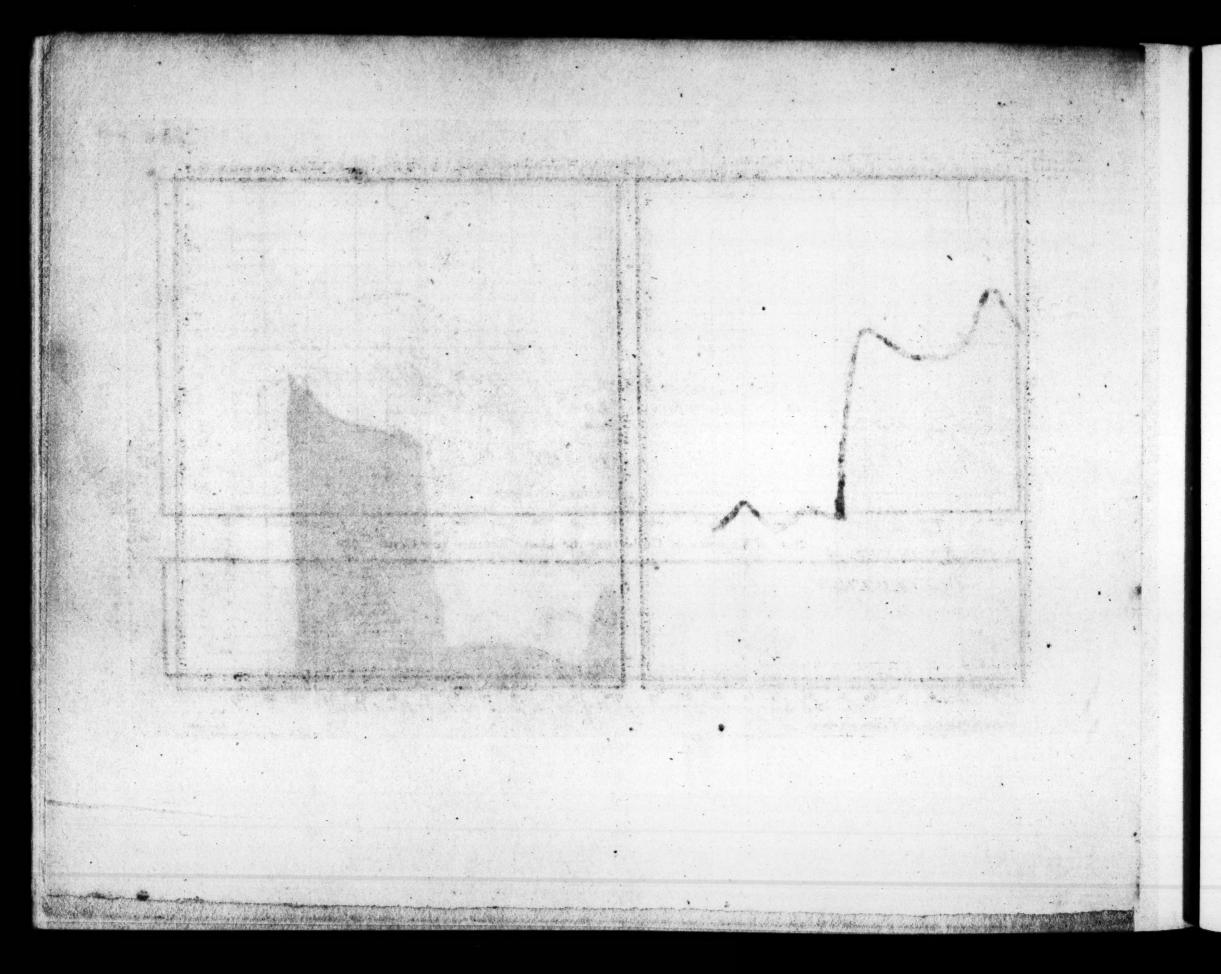
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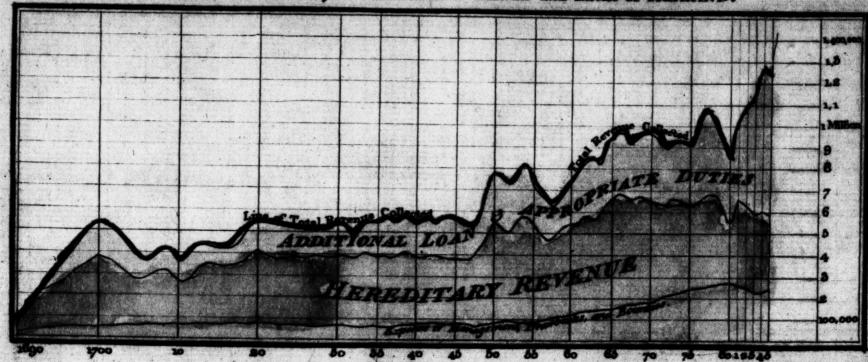


Published as the die direct July 25° 2788, by W?" Florent

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Revenue collected by Commissioners of Customs and Excise of IRELAND.



Rate of Expence of Collecting the above Revenue per Cent.



The Divisions at the Bottom express Years, those on the Right Hand Value.

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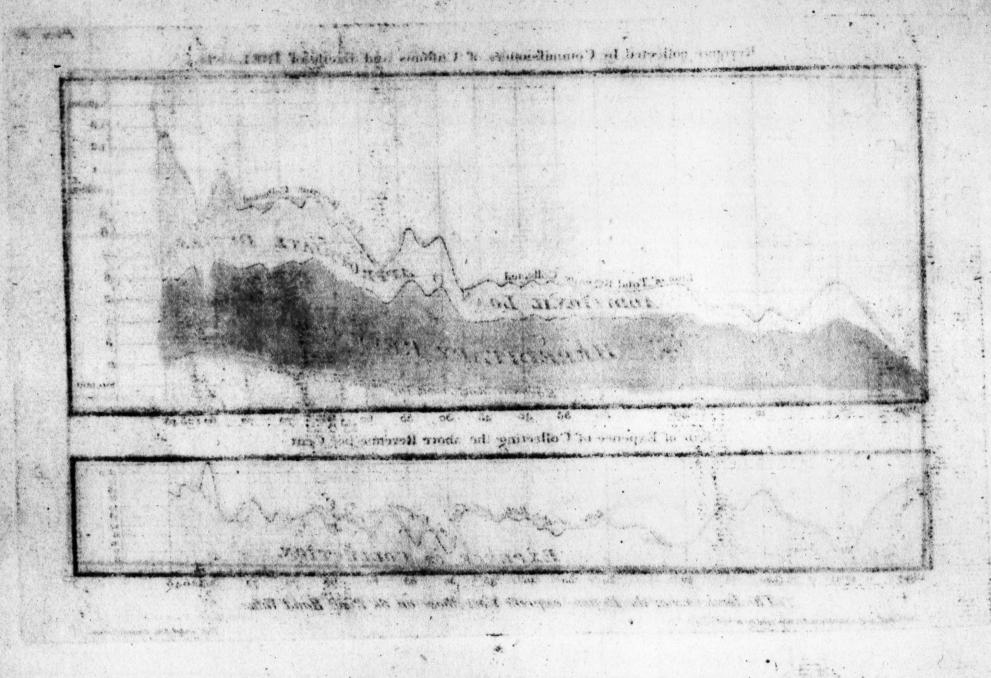
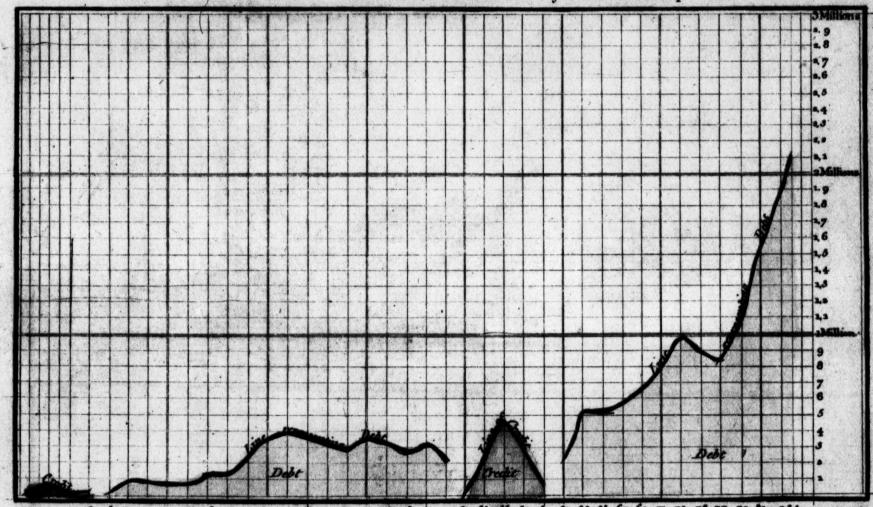


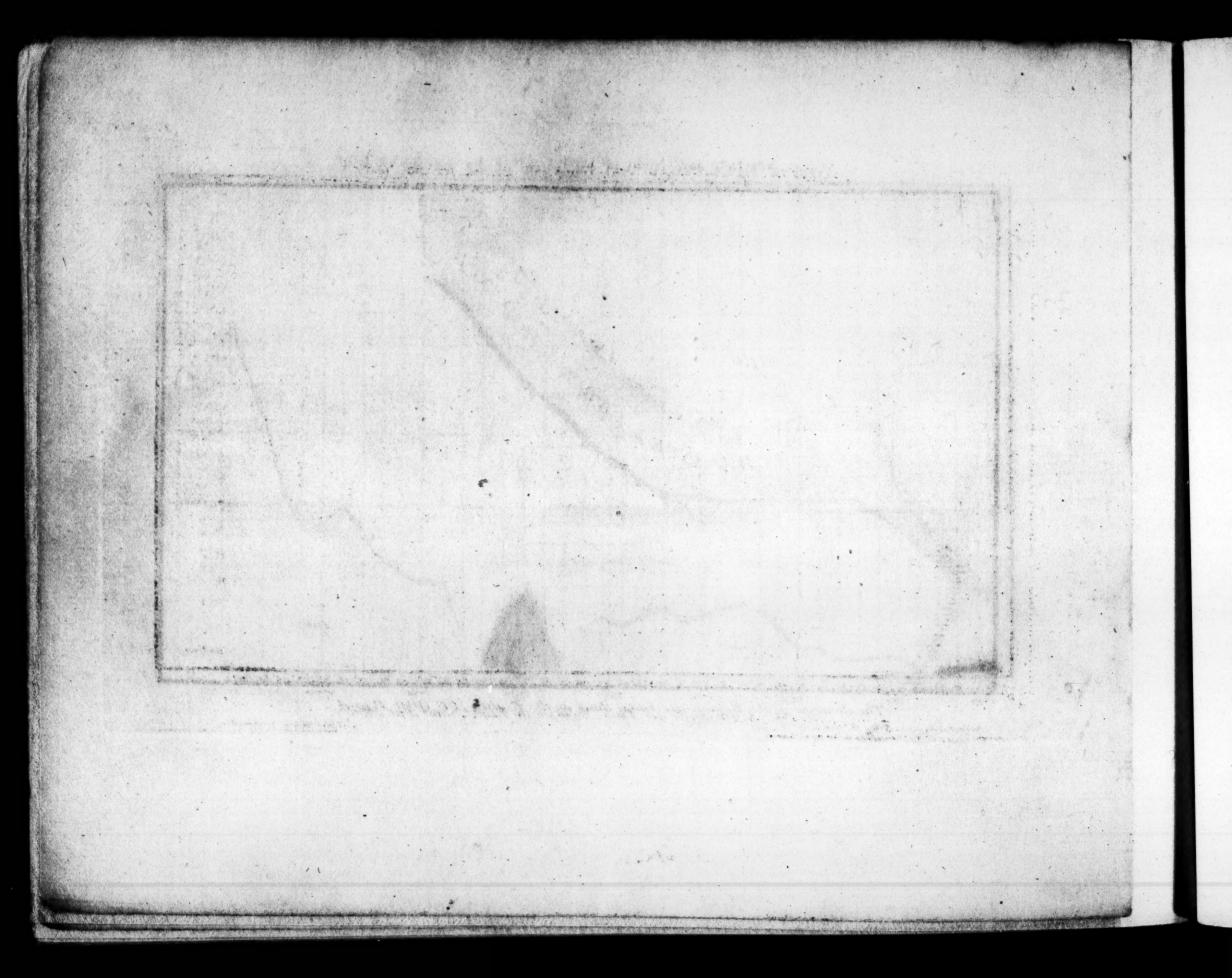
Chart of the Debt and Credit of IRELAND by CORRY Efq.



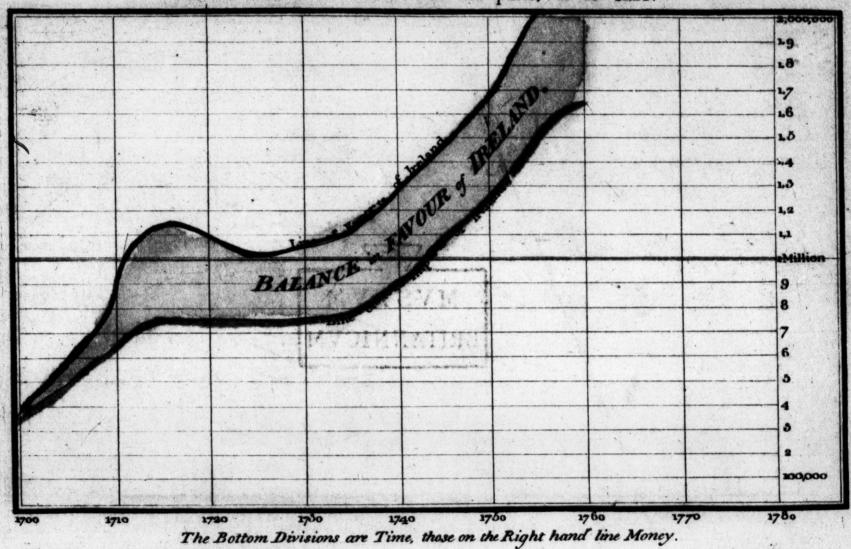
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The divisions at the Bottom are Years, those on the Right 100,000 Found.

Neck staff 352 Strand London.



Trade of IRELAND to and from all parts, for 60 Years.



Published as the Ast directs, 1" May 1786 by W" Playlis.

Neds sculpt 352, Strand, Lordon.

MVS EVM BRITANNICVM